PREDICTING TWO TYPES OF PROACTIVE SOCIALIZATION TACTICS: THE ROLES OF CONTEXT, EXPERIENCE, AND AGE

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PREDICTING TWO TYPES OF PROACTIVE SOCIALIZATION TACTICS: THE ROLES OF CONTEXT, EXPERIENCE, AND AGE

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To my parents for providing me with opportunities, without which I never would have dreamed this possible.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Build – boss	Building relationships with one's boss
BSM	Behavioral self-management
M	Mean
n.s.	Nonsignificant
P-O fit	Person – organization fit
P-G fit	Person – group fit
P-J fit	Person – job fit
POS	Perceived organizational support
PST	Proactive socialization tactic
SD	Standard deviation
SST	Socio-emotional selectivity theory

SUMMARY

Proactive socialization tactics, measures that organizational newcomers take to facilitate their own adjustment, have been shown to predict adjustment and more distal work-related outcomes, such as organizational commitment and intent to remain with the organization. Several cognitions and behaviors are considered to be types of proactive socialization tactics, but research has yet to distinguish between different types. Also, several individual dispositions have been identified as antecedents of proactive socialization tactics, but there has been little focus on identifying contextual or non-dispositional individual difference antecedents. The purpose of this research was to propose a dual-mode conceptualization of proactive socialization tactics and to distinguish between tactics directed toward changing oneself and those directed toward changing one's environment. This research also examined the role of contextual factors, the newcomer's age, and the newcomer's work experience as antecedents of proactive socialization tactics.

The results of this research suggest that job and workgroup characteristics do indeed play a role in predicting proactive socialization tactics. Age and work experience were predictors as well, but not as strong as expected. Both self-directed and environment-directed proactive socialization tactics predicted desirable adjustment outcomes, but self-directed tactics were clearly stronger predictors of these outcomes. There was some evidence to suggest that newcomers' early fit perceptions moderated relationships between antecedents, such as workgroup characteristics, and proactive socialization tactics. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, the socialization literature has focused on techniques that organizations and supervisors use to socialize newcomers, such as institutionalized socialization tactics and realistic job previews. The main assumption was that organizational newcomers were passive participants in the socialization process. In the past several years, however, the literature has begun recognizing the active role that newcomers can take in the socialization process. This shift has come primarily in the form of examining the proactive behavior in which individuals engage in order to facilitate their own adjustment. Proactive socialization tactics (PSTs) have been associated with a host of positive outcomes, including performance, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

One of the main goals of the proactive socialization literature has been to determine the antecedents of PSTs, which can be divided into two categories: individual differences and contextual factors. A great deal of the attention has been paid to dispositional antecedents, such as proactive personality and desire for control (Ashford & Black, 1996; Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). However, less attention has been paid to other types of antecedents. The purpose of this research is to explore the aspects of the organizational environment and the non-dispositional individual differences that may be antecedents of PSTs.

Non-dispositional individual differences often have been used as control variables in socialization research (e.g., Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, & Delobbe, 2006; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). However, little theoretical attention has been given to non-dispositional individual differences as potential

antecedents of socialization constructs. Notable exceptions include four studies that examine the effects of newcomers' work experience on overall adjustment and other socialization outcomes (Adkins, 1995; Beyer & Hannah, 2002; Carr, Pearson, Vest, & Boyar, 2006; Wesson, 2002). These studies showed that the work experience of newcomers had effects on pre-entry value congruence, information seeking, turnover, and performance. There also is evidence to suggest that the heterogeneity of one's past work experiences affects adjustment. Nonetheless, the overall scope of the effect of work experience on socialization is far from being understood. We do not yet fully understand which dimensions of work experience are important to examine as we tackle this topic. For instance, amount of work experience in terms of time may have different effects than the number of jobs held, the number of organizations in which one has worked, or the degree of similarity between one's prior jobs and organizations and the current job or organization.

Some contextual antecedents of PSTs have been researched as well. These have consisted of skill level of the job, opportunity to interact with others on the job, and task interdependence (Major & Kozlowski, 1997; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000; Weatherly, 2000). Institutionalized socialization tactics also have been found to predict some forms of PSTs (Gruman, Saks, & Zweig, 2006; Mignerey, Rubin, & Gorden, 1995). There are other job-related factors, such as role stressors (e.g., role conflict and role ambiguity), that have not been explored as antecedents of proactive socialization tactics. Also potentially relevant is the climate of the newcomer's workgroup. For instance, perceived levels of support and the degree to which workgroup members feel empowered may influence how proactive newcomers are during socialization.

The current study has three main purposes. The first will be to understand the role of contextual factors as potential antecedents of PSTs. That is, I will seek to understand the role that the organizational environment plays in affecting the degree to which newcomers take charge of their own adjustment. Specifically, I propose that factors such as job autonomy, workgroup empowerment climate, and workgroup support climate will be associated with newcomer proactivity.

The second main purpose of this study will be to understand the role of non-dispositional individual differences in the prediction of PSTs. I propose that a newcomer's age and work history will be related to performance of PSTs. Age affects work-related behaviors because of its effects on cognitive ability, personality, affect, and motivation (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). Work history, on the other hand, is proposed to affect individuals' organizational adjustment as a result of several factors, including experience with tasks, experience with organizational adjustment, and mental models regarding task performance and social functioning within organizations.

The final purpose of this research will be to introduce a broader conceptualization of PSTs. Ashford and Black (1996) appear to have published the only broad conceptualization of proactive socialization tactics to date that has resulted in empirical research. Although this conceptualization also has been the most commonly mentioned one in the literature, other researchers have studied behaviors that they consider to fall under the banner of proactive socialization. This research proposes expanding the definition of PSTs to include other tactics that, when performed by a newcomer during the socialization period, may facilitate adjustment. Further, I propose a distinction

between proactive behavior directed toward changing oneself and behavior directed at changing the organization, work group, job, or other aspects of the environment.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Organizational socialization is "the process by which an individual acquires the social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organizational role" (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979, p. 211). It is the process that transforms a new employee from an organizational outsider to an organizational insider. Van Maanen and Schein (1979) have described that individuals may go through this process by themselves in an informal, unstructured manner, or it may be highly formal and structured consisting of training or apprenticeships provided by the employing organization. Furthermore, it has been said that socialization, to some extent, occurs when one experiences job changes within an organization, as well as actually changing organizations (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). The effectiveness of socialization is generally assessed in terms of newcomer adjustment. Adjustment refers to the completion of the socialization process (Katz, 1980). Feldman (1981, p. 309) has proposed that adjustment consists of "acquisition of appropriate role behaviors, development of work skills and abilities, and adjustment to the workgroup's norms and values."

The bulk of the socialization literature focuses on organizational socialization tactics, which are actions that organizations can take in order to facilitate the socialization of their newcomers. Van Maanen and Schein (Van Maanen, 1978; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) have identified six dimensions that characterize organizational socialization tactics: collective vs. individual, formal vs. informal, sequential vs. random, fixed vs. variable, serial vs. disjunctive, and investiture vs. divestiture.

The collective vs. individual tactic refers to the extent to which the organization's socialization tactics are identical for an entire cohort of newcomers or whether those

tactics differ by individual. Formal vs. informal refers to the extent that the newcomer is separated from the rest of the organizational population during the socialization process. Formal processes, in which the newcomer is separated, make the newcomer's unique role more salient than informal processes. Sequential socialization tactics involve a specific sequence of activities, whereas random socialization either does not involve a specified sequence of steps or involves a sequence that is unable to be determined by the newcomer. Fixed socialization tactics are completed within a predetermined period of time that is made known to the newcomer. On the other hand, newcomers are not given a specific timetable for completion of socialization when variable tactics are used. When serial tactics are used, organizational incumbents assist in the socialization of newcomers. Disjunctive tactics do not involve the use of incumbents as role models. Finally, investiture tactics validate the newcomer's existing sense of self and have the purpose of building upon the characteristics and skills the newcomer already possesses. Divestiture tactics, however, require that newcomers first lose certain aspects of their self-image in order to replace those characteristics with those more acceptable to the organization.

Jones (1986) later categorized the former extreme of each dimension as institutionalized socialization tactics, referring to structured, sequential, and standardized methods on the part of the organization, and the latter extreme as individualized socialization tactics, which is the lack of formalization and structure. Further, he implemented a three-factor typology of the tactics identifying formal and collective tactics as having to do with socialization *context,* sequential and fixed as socialization *content,* and serial and investiture as socialization *social* tactics. Since then, a great deal of research has been conducted investigating outcomes of organizational socialization

tactics. Jones (1986) proposed and found that institutionalized tactics were positively associated with a custodial role orientation, in which newcomers accept their roles as they have been presented to them (Schein, 1971; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). Conversely, the lack of institutionalized socialization tactics was found to lead to innovative role orientations, in which newcomers seek to make major changes to the way in which role objectives are accomplished (Schein, 1971; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979). A more recent study by Ashforth and colleagues (Ashforth, Sluss, & Saks, 2007) supports these findings.

Institutionalized tactics generally have been found to positively predict a host of desirable outcomes, including role clarity (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), reduced role conflict (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), learning (Ashforth et al., 2007), social integration (Gruman et al., 2006), changes in newcomers' values (Cable & Parsons, 2001), P-O fit (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Gruman et al., 2006; Kim, Cable, & Kim, 2005), P-J fit (Gruman et al., 2006), job satisfaction (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), organizational commitment (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986), organizational identification (Ashforth & Saks, 1996), embeddedness (Allen, 2006), and intent to remain with the organization (Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Jones, 1986).

Over the past fifteen years the socialization literature has grown to give more attention to the impact of organizational factors other than institutionalized socialization, along with the impacts of organizational insiders and newcomers themselves. For instance, Saks (1995) found that training predicted newcomer adjustment, and the

relationship was moderated by newcomers' initial self-efficacy perceptions. Ashforth, Saks, and Lee (1998) found that job design, in addition to institutionalized socialization, was related to newcomer adjustment. They also found that organizations with more mechanistic, as opposed to organic, structures, organizational size, and jobs with higher levels of motivating potential were more likely to have institutionalized socialization tactics in place. Regarding dispositions, Saks and Ashforth (2000) found limited support for a relationship between dispositions (i.e., general self-efficacy and negative affectivity) and adjustment. Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003) researched the influence of leaders and coworkers in addition to that of the organization and found that they differentially relate to adjustment outcomes. They also found that newcomers' knowledge prior to organizational entry predicted adjustment. Maier and Brunstein (2001) found that newcomers' personal work goals influenced their job satisfaction and organizational commitment, generally considered to be distal indicators of adjustment.

Proactivity Research in Organizational Behavior

The current research concerns proactive behavior within the domain of newcomer socialization. However, proactive behavior has been researched elsewhere within the field of organizational behavior. Crant (2000) defined proactive behavior as "taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions" (p. 436). This definition focuses on efforts to change the environment, but neglects effort to change oneself. The present research is more closely aligned with the definition put forth by Parker and associates (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006): "self-initiated and future-oriented action that aims to change and improve the situation or oneself" (p. 636).

Crant (2000) reviewed research related to proactive behavior occurring in six organizational research domains: socialization, feedback seeking, issue selling, innovation, career management, and stress management. From this review Crant concluded: proactive behavior is relevant in many different research domains; proactivity can be influenced by contextual factors; research concerning proactive behavior has been prompted by concerns in various literatures about an overemphasis on individual passivity; and that proactive behavior is motivated by desires to reduce uncertainty and ambiguity.

Bateman and Crant (1993) defined individuals with proactive personalities as being "relatively unconstrained by situational forces, and who effects environmental change" (p. 105). Previous research has found it to relate to need for achievement, need for dominance, personal achievements, leadership, and extracurricular activities (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Other research has found proactive personality to be positively related to the Big Five personality traits, motivation to learn, goal attainment, innovation, political knowledge, career initiative, and job search success (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop, 2006; Greguras & Diefendorff, 2007; Major, Turner, & Fletcher, 2006; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001). Proactive personality has been found to be conceptually distinct from self-esteem and conscientiousness (Brown et al., 2006).

Parker and her colleagues (Parker et al., 2006) proposed and tested a model that included both proactive behavior and proactive personality constructs. In this study, proactive behavior was operationalized as proactive idea implementation and proactive problem solving, and proactive cognitive-emotional states were operationalized by role breadth self-efficacy and flexible role orientation, among others. They found that

proactive personality, job autonomy, and coworker trust predicted proactive behavior as mediated by role breadth self-efficacy and/or flexible role orientation. More recently, a self-report study of line and administrative employees found that communion striving, status striving, learning goal orientation, and proving goal orientation to be related to proactive behavior (Chiaburu, Marinova, & Lim, 2007).

Regarding proactive behavior, feedback-seeking and information-seeking literatures are large and are not limited to the socialization domain. Reviews of this research have concluded that there are three categories of motives for seeking feedback: instrumental, such that feedback is used to help the seeker perform well; ego-based, such that feedback is used to help one feel better about oneself; and image-based, such that feedback is used to help the seeker be seen favorably by others (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). Resolving uncertainty and ambiguity, categorized as instrumental motives, are key antecedents of both feedback-seeking and information-seeking (Ashford et al., 2003; Morrison, 2002a), which is one of the reasons feedback- and information-seeking research often uses samples consisting of organizational newcomers.

Some other behaviors that are considered to be proactive have been categorized as organizational extra-role behaviors and have not been researched in the context of newcomer socialization. These include voice and taking charge, which are included in the model for the present research. Both of these behaviors are oriented toward affecting the external environment, voice in terms of suggestions and taking charge in terms of implementing change (Hirschman, 1970; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). Procedural justice, organizational citizenship behavior role perceptions, propensity to trust, and supervisor behavior, among others, have been shown to predict taking charge behavior (Chiaburu &

Baker, 2006; McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007). Individuals' feelings of responsibility for constructive change have been found to predict voice behavior (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006).

Proactivity in Socialization Research

PSTs are discretionary actions taken by newcomers in order to facilitate their own adjustment. It differs from the concept of individualized socialization which is simply the lack of institutionalized socialization tactics (Jones, 1986), in that it is characterized by specific behaviors on the part of newcomers. Reichers (1987) was one of the first researchers to propose that newcomers may be proactive in managing the socialization process. Her model posited that the rate of socialization depends on the extent to which both newcomers and insiders are proactive in initiating interaction with one another. Ashford and Black (1996) have conceptualized PSTs as consisting of positive framing (which is categorized with self-management in this paper), negotiating job changes, information acquisition, which includes feedback seeking and information seeking, and social behaviors, including general socializing, networking, and building a relationship with one's boss ("build – boss"). Of these, newcomer feedback and information seeking has been the most researched in the socialization literature.

There has been a fairly rich literature surrounding the topic of newcomer information seeking. In early research in this area, Miller and Jablin (1991) proposed that newcomers' levels of uncertainty and perceptions of the social costs of information seeking influenced the information seeking tactics chosen and, as a result, levels of role stressors. Other factors proposed to influence information-seeking behavior were types of information desired, sources of information, individual differences, and contextual

factors. Three types of information were proposed to be sought by newcomers: information about meeting job requirements, information used to assess how well one is functioning on the job, and information to aid in understanding social relationships. Ostroff and Kozlowski (1992) explored the sources of information that newcomers use, and found that newcomers' most used sources were observation of others, supervisors, and coworkers. Tasks and roles were the topics for which information was most commonly sought. Morrison's (1993b) research generally supported the use of these information sources and topics of inquiry. Further, she found that the information sources that newcomers chose depended in part on the types of information needed. Another study by Morrison (1993a), this one longitudinal, showed that newcomer information seeking related to the desirable socialization outcomes of task mastery, role clarification, understanding of organizational culture, and social integration. A recent meta-analysis confirmed the positive influence of newcomer information seeking on social integration and role clarity, and also revealed a positive relationship with organizational commitment (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007).

Other research has contributed to expanding the definition of PSTs. Saks and Ashforth (1996) examined behavioral self-management (BSM) as a proactive socialization tactic. They defined BSM as "a series of behaviors which enables one to structure and motivate their own behavior by setting goals, practicing new and desired behaviors, keeping track of progress, and rewarding oneself for goal achievement" (Saks & Ashforth, 1996, p. 303) and used a measure that included the following six behavioral strategies: self-observation, cueing, self-goal-setting, self-reward, self-punishment, and rehearsal (Manz, 1983). Griffin, Colella, and Goparaju (2000) proffered a

conceptualization of PSTs that included all of the above behaviors and added informal mentor relationships, involvement in work-related activities, and observation and behavioral modeling. The conceptualization offered in the current paper will build on Griffin and colleagues' conceptualization.

A dissertation by Weatherly (1999) is one of the few pieces of research to attempt to dimensionalize proactive socialization behavior. She proposed two types: informational and relational. Each of these types was proposed to be directed toward either coworkers or supervisors.

A more recent study of newcomer – supervisor dyads in firms in South Korea used an existing conceptualization of PSTs, but was unique in that it showed that PSTs interact with organizational socialization tactics to influence outcomes (Kim et al., 2005). In this study, institutionalized socialization tactics were positively related to P-O fit for newcomers that engaged in positive framing, but not for newcomers that did not engage in this tactic. Also, institutionalized socialization was positively related to P-O fit for newcomers who did *not* engage in build – boss, but institutionalized tactics did not predict P-O fit when newcomers did engage in build – boss. Another study found PSTs to play moderating roles. The relationship between institutionalized tactics and outcomes was stronger for newcomers that engaged in lower levels of feedback-seeking and information-seeking than for those who engaged in higher levels (Gruman et al., 2006).

Overall, PSTs have been associated with a host of favorable adjustment outcomes, both proximal, such as learning, role innovation, role clarity, social integration (Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006), and distal, such as performance, job satisfaction, organizational identification, and reduced turnover intentions (Ashford &

Black, 1996; Ashforth et al., 2007; Bauer et al., 2007; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Specifically, Saks and Ashforth (1996) found that proactive behavior during the socialization process was correlated with less general anxiety for the newcomer (disregarding self-punishment) and less stress within the first month of entry. PSTs also were related to internal motivation (neglecting self-reward), ability to cope, and reduced task-specific anxiety six months later. Anxiety and stress mediated the relationship between self-management and both ability to cope and task-specific anxiety (Saks & Ashforth, 1996).

Regarding antecedents of PSTs, Ashford and Black's (1996) research found that newcomers' desire for control positively predicted all of the behaviors in their study except for feedback seeking and build – boss. The Big Five personality traits have been researched as potential antecedents of PSTs, but regression results found only extraversion and openness to experience to predict the types of PSTs identified thus far (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). Proactive personality and self-efficacy, have emerged as other predictors of PSTs (Ashford & Black, 1996; Gruman et al., 2006; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

The research on non-dispositional individual difference predictors of PST is extremely limited. Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) measured age, among others, as a control variable and found that it was positively related to positive framing. Delobbe (2006) found that age, also a control variable, predicted newcomer information seeking from the supervisor. It appears that only one study purposely investigated the link between age and PST. This research, conducted among newcomers in academic and retail

industries, found a negative relationship between age and covert information seeking behavior (Finkelstein, Kulas, & Dages, 2003).

Although there is scant research concerning work experience and PSTs, there have been several research findings concerning work experience and related constructs as predictors of socialization outcomes. In these studies, work experience is generally operationalized as the amount of time the individual has spent working in a professional or full-time job, whereas others ask about specific occupational work experience. Work experience has been found to predict value congruence and person-job (P-J) fit at the time of organizational entry, self efficacy, organizational identity, retention, performance, lower socialization content levels, and lower levels of information seeking (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Carr et al., 2006; Delobbe, 2006; Klynn, 2001; Wesson, 2002). Bauer and Green (1994) operationalized work experience in terms of amount of experience with the tasks required in the current job. Their sample consisted of new PhD students. Their structural equation model showed that newcomers' past experience predicted current research activity, professional involvement, and publications. Past research was also correlated with self-efficacy, lower role ambiguity, and commitment. Regarding work experience and PSTs, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) measured number of days employed and number of jobs held in the past five years as control variables, the latter of which can be construed as a proxy for amount of experience in being socialized. Number of days employed (the average was 95 at Time 2) was positively related to relationship building behavior and number of jobs was related to positive framing.

Some contextual antecedents of PSTs have been identified, but some of these findings are either focused on a single type of PST (i.e., feedback-seeking and/or

information seeking) or were non-hypothesized relationships concerning control variables. Three studies have found institutionalized socialization to predict some PSTs. In a study of organizational newcomers with a wide range of ages, researchers found that institutionalized socialization predicted feedback seeking, which in turn influenced job content innovation (Mignerey et al., 1995). In a dissertation that used a sample of recent college grads, results showed that facets of institutionalized socialization predicted certain types of proactive behavior (Weatherly, 1999). These tactics generally were both positive and negative predictors of proactivity. In a study using a sample of university students who had recently completed a co-op assignment, which is similar to an internship, Gruman and colleagues (2006) found that institutionalized socialization tactics positively predicted PSTs. Task interdependence has been identified as an antecedent of information seeking by Major and Kozlowski (1997) and with informational proactive behavior directed toward coworkers (Weatherly, 1999). A study concerning career-enhancing strategies of newcomers conceptualized career-enhancing strategies in a way that overlaps with the current conceptualization of PSTs. In this study, supervisor and coworker relations predicted career-enhancing strategies (Feij, Whitely, Peiró, & Taris, 1995). Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) used opportunity to interact with others on the job and job skill level as control variables in their study of the relationship between personality and PSTs. Opportunity to interact with others positively related to information seeking, and skill level positively related to all four categories of PSTs studied (i.e., information seeking, feedback seeking, relationship building, and positive framing).

The above review illustrates the need to further understand antecedents of PSTs. The biggest gaps that exist are in regard to individual predictors that are not personality oriented, such as age and biographical data, and contextual factors that relate to the job, workgroup, or organization. Moreover, knowledge that does exist regarding PSTs is biased toward newcomer feedback-seeking and information-seeking behaviors. We need a better understanding of antecedents of all of the other types of PSTs that have been identified. This paper will attempt to fill these gaps by researching age, work experience, and several contextual variables as antecedents of PSTs. Before development of the hypothesis, I will discuss the conceptualization of PSTs in more detail.

CHAPTER 3: FORMS OF PROACTIVE SOCIALIZATION TACTICS

Proactive socialization tactics (PSTs) consist of the actions that organizational newcomers take in order to facilitate their own adjustment to new environments, including new jobs, work groups, and organizations. There are three general ways in which PSTs may facilitate newcomer adjustment. The first is through the self-regulatory process. The proactive socialization framework is rooted in control and self-regulation theories (Carver & Scheier, 1981). According to these theories, it is generally expected that individuals will regulate their cognition and behavior by setting a standard, identifying discrepancies between the current state and the standard, and attempting to reduce the discrepancy. This is known as a cybernetic process. Social cognitive theory contributes to our understanding of self-regulation by proposing that individuals also engage in discrepancy creation, rather than just reduction, by setting standards or goals that differ from their current status levels (Bandura, 1991; Wood & Bandura, 1989). The standard may be in regard to their behavior, performance results, or cognitive – emotional states. For instance, individuals that are highly proactive in managing their organizational adjustment process may set standards, or goals, for themselves in regard to their behavior in the workplace, their work performance outcomes, or their satisfaction with the work and organization. Newcomers then determine whether or not their behaviors, performance, or satisfaction are in line with the current standards and try to reduce any detected discrepancies. I will explore this concept of discrepancy reduction a bit further.

At the most basic level, discrepancies may be reduced by changing the standard or the outcome. For instance, individuals may change the standard by lowering or raising goal levels, making qualitative changes to goals, or abandoning certain goals altogether.

On the other hand, an individual may choose to change the level of the outcome by, for instance, increasing effort toward work performance, learning to change behaviors, or working to change something in the self or environment to improve the cognitive – emotional state. This distinction has appeared in various concepts in different research domains. In the newcomer socialization literature, for instance, Schein (1971; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) proposed the constructs of innovative and custodial role orientations as responses to organizational socialization attempts. Newcomers that adopt an innovative role orientation attempt to change the role to fit their own preferences. Newcomers that adopt a custodial role orientation accept their role as it was given to them and adapt themselves to the role. In the self-regulation literature, Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder (1982) have proposed that there are two forms of control. Primary control consists of "attempts to change the world so that it fits the self's needs," whereas secondary control is defined as "attempts to fit in with the world" (p. 8). In this paper, it will be proposed that PSTs can be conceptualized in a similar way: behaviors directed toward self-change and behaviors directed toward environmental change.

A second way that being proactive may facilitate adjustment is through the mechanism of uncertainty reduction (Crant, 2000). The process of taking control in order to obtain information or build relationships helps newcomers to better understand their environments. However, proactive behaviors also may facilitate adjustment by helping the employee and employer to become more similar. In other words, proactive behaviors may result in changes to either the individual, the organization, or both, in terms of values, capabilities, and processes, such that they become more compatible.

Finally, a third way that proactive behaviors on the part of newcomers may facilitate socialization is by encouraging interaction between newcomers and veteran, or incumbent, employees, including coworkers and supervisors. The tasks of socialization include establishing an identity for oneself within the organization (Katz, 1980; Wanous, 1980) and organizational sensemaking, or deriving understanding and meaning regarding organizational policies, practices, and events (Louis, 1980). Reichers (1987) has proposed that because both of these processes are inherently social in nature, interaction between organizational newcomers and veterans facilitates these processes. Reichers further proposed that proactive behavior on the part of newcomers specifically requires interaction with organizational veterans, and therefore results in a faster rate of socialization.

Given the manner in which PSTs facilitate adjustment, it is necessary to recognize that proactive behaviors may either be directed toward affecting oneself or one's environment (Parker et al., 2006). Proactive socialization research has focused primarily on behaviors, such as behavioral self-management, sensemaking, and relationship building, that are focused on self-change (Ashford & Black, 1996; Saks & Ashforth, 1996). However, researchers have proposed that newcomers adjust to their environments by either changing themselves or changing the environment. Schein (1971) used role orientation to explain these adjustment methods. Individuals that adopt a custodial orientation accept their work roles as given and change themselves to adapt to the role. Those with an innovative role orientation, on the other hand, tend to change their roles as they see fit. Nicholson's (1984) theory of work role transitions also has proposed different modes of adjustment following transitions. These modes are characterized by

two dimensions: personal development and role development. The personal development mode involves individuals changing their perspectives or values to match the demands of their new roles. Individuals choosing the role development mode of change try to change the parameters of the new role to match their own abilities and preferences. Moreland and Levine (2001) described socialization as a "process of mutual adjustment" in which changes may occur in both newcomers and incumbent employees (p. 69).

A study of recent MBA graduates supports the contention that there are two foci of influence concerning adjustment-related behavior. Black and Ashford (1995) found that organizational socialization tactics and individual differences differentially predicted newcomers' modes of adjustment. Need for feedback was positively associated with the decision to change oneself, whereas investiture was negatively related to self change (Black & Ashford, 1995). Need for control was positively related to job change. This research showed that institutionalized socialization tactics were generally negatively related to the decision to change one's job. Specifically, sequential, collective, formal, and fixed tactics were negatively related to job change. Investiture, on the other hand, was positively related to job change and negatively related to self change. Serial tactics predicted neither self change nor job change. Job change and self change were not significantly correlated.

The evidence that individuals have two potential modes of adjustment makes it worthwhile to consider expanding the definition of PSTs. The conceptualization offered here draws heavily from one proposed by Griffin and her associates (Griffin et al., 2000), and builds on it with the addition of environment-directed behaviors. Ashford and Black's (1996) conceptualization of PSTs includes sensemaking behaviors (i.e., feedback

and general information seeking), relationship-building behaviors (i.e., build – boss, networking, and general socializing), positive framing, and job-change negotiating. Except for the latter tactic, these methods are directed at changing the newcomers, either by learning about the environment or expectations of oneself, developing social ties with other organizational members, or cognitively evaluating elements of the environment in such a way to make them easier to accommodate.

On the other hand, job-change negotiating, is an attempt to change the way one's job is conducted to better match one's own strengths and preferences. There are other proactive behaviors that are directed at changing one's environment that have not been examined in the context of newcomer socialization. The ones identified in this paper are taking charge and voice (Hirschman, 1970; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). In the extrarole behavior literature, both of these are considered to be challenging behaviors, meaning they are oriented toward environmental change. Whereas voice concerns expressing opinions, taking charge concerns making suggestions as well as working to carry out suggested changes (McAllister et al., 2007). Like forms of PSTs that have been identified in previous studies, such as feedback seeking and BSM, these are behaviors that may be expressed outside of the early employment time period. However, the specific focus of this paper is how these behaviors may be related to the adjustment of organizational newcomers.

Self-Directed PSTs

Cognitive and Behavioral Self-Management

The terms self-management and self-regulation are sometimes used interchangeably in the literature (Saks & Ashforth, 1996). However, I adopt the view of

self-regulation as a broad process concerning management of oneself while taking into account the reciprocal relationship between the self and the environment, whereas self-management refers to more micro, internal processes with little concern for context and environment (Ashford & Tsui, 1991). Proactive behavior is a part of the self-regulatory process, and self-management is a type of proactive behavior. Self-management is the process of using cognitive and behavioral strategies to control one's behavior (Frayne & Geringer, 2000). According to Manz and Sims (Manz, 1983; Manz & Sims, 1984, 1980) self-management includes the procedures of problem identification, observing one's own behaviors, setting goals for oneself, using cueing strategies to manage exposure to stimuli that are associated with desirable and undesirable behavior, implementing rewards and punishments for oneself, and rehearsing desired behaviors. Self-management has been positively associated with self-efficacy, learning, job performance, job satisfaction, and business unit effectiveness (Frayne & Geringer, 2000; Stewart, Carson, & Cardy, 1996; Uhl-Bien & Graen, 1998).

In addition to the self-management components that Manz and Sims identified, positive framing is a cognitive self-management technique related to the primary appraisal process (Ashford & Black, 1996). Primary appraisal determines the degree to which one perceives a particular situation to be a threat to one's well-being (Folkman, 1984). Those who engage in the positive framing process see situations in a more positive light, for example as a challenge rather than as a threat. As a result of this tendency, individuals are proposed to feel a greater degree of control and self-efficacy in regard to the situation (Ashford & Black, 1996). Regarding the self-regulation process specifically, positive framing may help individuals reduce perceived discrepancies by being optimistic

during the cognitive appraisal process. Both individual and situational factors are expected to be antecedents of positive framing (Ashford & Black, 1996; Folkman, 1984). Among the situational antecedents proposed have been the degree to which one is familiar with the situation, role stressors, and the coping resources available to the individual (Folkman, 1984; Kinicki, McKee, & Wade, 1996; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Sensemaking through Feedback- and Information-Seeking

In the context of work and organizations, sensemaking is the process of understanding and interpreting the organizational context and one's job. Sensemaking in terms of PSTs includes information seeking and feedback seeking (Ashford & Black, 1996). Information seeking refers to the process of gathering information about the broader organizational context, such as its structure, policies, and politics. Feedback seeking is the process of searching for evaluations and critiques of one's work performance. These behaviors help individuals assess their current status in regards to the standards they have set in the self-regulation process. Morrison's (2002a) integrated model of information seeking within organizations proposes that information seeking behaviors are influenced by individual differences, contextual characteristics, and perceived costs, in terms of effort and potential damage to the image and ego. Along the same lines, Ashford and colleagues propose that there are three overall motives for seeking feedback: instrumental, image defense/enhancement, and ego defense/enhancement (Ashford et al., 2003). Contextual factors can influence how or from whom feedback is sought, or can make certain feedback-seeking motives more salient.

Relationship Building

Building relationships with one's coworkers and supervisors should improve newcomer adjustment in three ways. The first is by helping newcomers to integrate socially with the organization. Getting to know others helps newcomers feel accepted by others in the organization, which is a key aspect of newcomer adjustment (Feldman, 1981). This may help newcomers to feel a more positive affectivity toward the job and organization and reduce discrepancies in regard to their affective-oriented goals. The second way that building relationships is expected to help facilitate adjustment is by providing newcomers with an opportunity to learn unwritten rules and norms of the organization. This tacit information can be difficult for organizational members to convey to newcomers. Learning these unwritten rules and expectations as they relate to the jobs and the way they function within the organization may help newcomers set more meaningful goals as part of the self-regulation process.

The third way relationship building may facilitate adjustment is that developing relationships gives newcomers additional information resources. For instance, coworkers, managers, and others in the organization can provide newcomers with feedback regarding job performance, access to potential mentors, and modeling opportunities. Individuals with whom newcomers build relationships also may help newcomers with more mundane aspects of adjustment, such as learning administrative procedures and finding out where things are in the office. This access to resources would be expected to help newcomers assess their status in regard to standards they have set for themselves, and also may aid them in their attempts to reduce discrepancies. For example, a coworker may provide advice on how to perform an aspect of the job better, if the newcomer is having difficulty.

PSTs in regard to relationship building includes networking behaviors, building relationships with one's boss, and general socializing with coworkers (Ashford & Black, 1996).

Initiation of Mentoring Relationships

Informal mentoring is a type of PST because it requires a newcomer to establish or make efforts to continue the relationship, and because mentoring may improve newcomer adjustment. Typically, mentors are more senior members of an organization that provide career and psychosocial assistance to individuals, or protégés, that are more junior in the organization (Higgins & Kram, 2001). There are two general types of mentoring relationships. Formal relationships are programs established by organizations, such as an employer or a professional organization. Informal mentoring is a spontaneous relationship that develops between a mentor and protégé. Formal mentoring programs may be optional or required by the sponsoring organization. Even if the program is optional, though, potential protégés generally just need to submit information about themselves in order to be matched with a mentor. Informal mentoring, on the other hand, requires a potential protégé to develop a relationship with a more senior person when a formal process for doing so may not exist. Further, both the potential mentor and the potential protégé must see value in having a relationship with the other person in order to develop a mentoring relationship.

Mentoring may benefit newcomer adjustment in several ways. Kram's (1985) seminal research identified two broad mentoring functions. Career functions are those that facilitate the protégé's career success. These functions include challenging assignments, coaching, exposure, protection, and sponsorship. These functions give

employees the opportunity to improve their skills in preparation for higher level job assignments. This helps to reduce discrepancies in regard to career-related goals. Psychosocial mentoring functions are those that help the protégé develop a sense of confidence and clarity of identity. Psychosocial mentoring is considered to be a type of social support. Its functions include acceptance and confirmation, counseling, friendship, and role modeling. Other mentoring researchers (e.g., Scandura, 1992) classify role modeling as a function separate from career and psychosocial functions. Psychosocial functions not only may help to bond newcomers to their organizations and help them achieve their affective-oriented goals, but they also provide resources to help newcomers reduce discrepancies in regard to other goals. As with the sensemaking behaviors, psychosocial functions of mentoring also may help individuals with the processes of standard setting and discrepancy detection.

Environment-Directed PSTs

All three environment-directed proactive behaviors described below relate to the discrepancy reduction part of the cybernetic process. When individuals detect discrepancies between their desired states and their goals, the next step generally is to try to reduce that discrepancy. As described earlier, two ways individuals may try to reduce or eliminate discrepancies are by changing something about their skills, cognitions, or behavior, or by changing something about the environment. These behaviors are specifically oriented toward changing something about the environment in order to obtain a better match between goals and reality.

Negotiating Job Changes

Ashford and Black (1996) described job-change negotiating as attempting to change the way a job is done in order to increase control in the workplace. Newcomers who perceive a low level of fit with their jobs may find that changing the way their job is performed improves P-J fit and overall job performance. Even newcomers that do not necessarily perceive a particularly low level of fit, but just have ideas of how to change their jobs to capitalize more on their strengths and preferences, may find improved mastery of the tasks the job requires and improved satisfaction with the job. In addition to discrepancy reduction, negotiating job changes may even help clarify one's role in the organization and, thus, aid with standard setting. Negotiating job changes requires newcomers to communicate with their supervisor(s) and/or coworkers. Through this process, newcomers may develop a better understanding of others' expectations for the role and may be able to resolve issues of conflict or ambiguity.

Taking Charge

Taking charge is an extrarole behavior involving "voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within the contexts of their jobs, work units, or organizations" (Morrison & Phelps, 1999, p. 403). Essentially, it involves taking the initiative to make improvements in the organizational context. Whereas negotiating job changes is oriented solely toward changing the newcomer's job tasks, taking charge may affect the job or other aspects of the context. Furthermore, the purpose of taking charge is not necessarily to improve fit directly, but is to make things better in a broader sense. Examples include attempting to change the way a workgroup process is performed to improve

communication between the parties involved or suggesting vendor changes that will save the organization money.

Voice

According to Van Dyne and LePine (1998), voice "emphasizes expression of constructive challenge intended to improve rather than merely criticize" (p. 109). It is similar to the concept of taking charge in that it is motivated by the desire to make changes in the job or organization. However, the key difference between taking charge and voice is that voice behavior is motivated by dissatisfaction or objection to the status quo (Hirschman, 1970). Voice can play a key role to adjustment because it is a way for newcomers to eliminate causes of dissatisfaction, rather than take more disruptive actions, such as withdrawal or exit, in response to dissatisfaction.

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESES

It is a widely accepted principle in behavioral research that behavior is a function of both persons and situations (Lewin, 1936). The proactive socialization literature is still in its early stages, but the bulk of the research so far has focused on dispositional predictors of PSTs. We need to know more about other individual differences that predict PSTs, as well as contextual predictors. In the model I am proposing for this research (see **Error! Reference source not found.**), I propose both age and work experience as additional individual difference predictors of PSTs. Further, I identify contextual factors that are expected to predict PSTs. These include role stressors and job autonomy at the job level, and support climate, empowerment climate, and institutionalized socialization at the workgroup levels. In this chapter, I will address the potential for these factors to influence proactive behavior during socialization.

Individual Antecedents of PSTs

Age

Adult development can be characterized in terms of four types of patterns: decline in fluid intellectual abilities, such as working memory and spatial ability; gains in crystallized intelligence, which is the accumulation of one's life knowledge and experience; reorganization of social motives; and shifts in the priorities of other motives related to changes in, for instance, personality composition and affect (Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004). The reorganization of social motives is the most relevant pattern for understanding relationships between age and newcomer socialization, because

socialization is characterized by interactions between newcomers and their supervisors and coworkers. Carstensen's socioemotional selectivity theory helps us understand the role that social motives may play in PSTs.

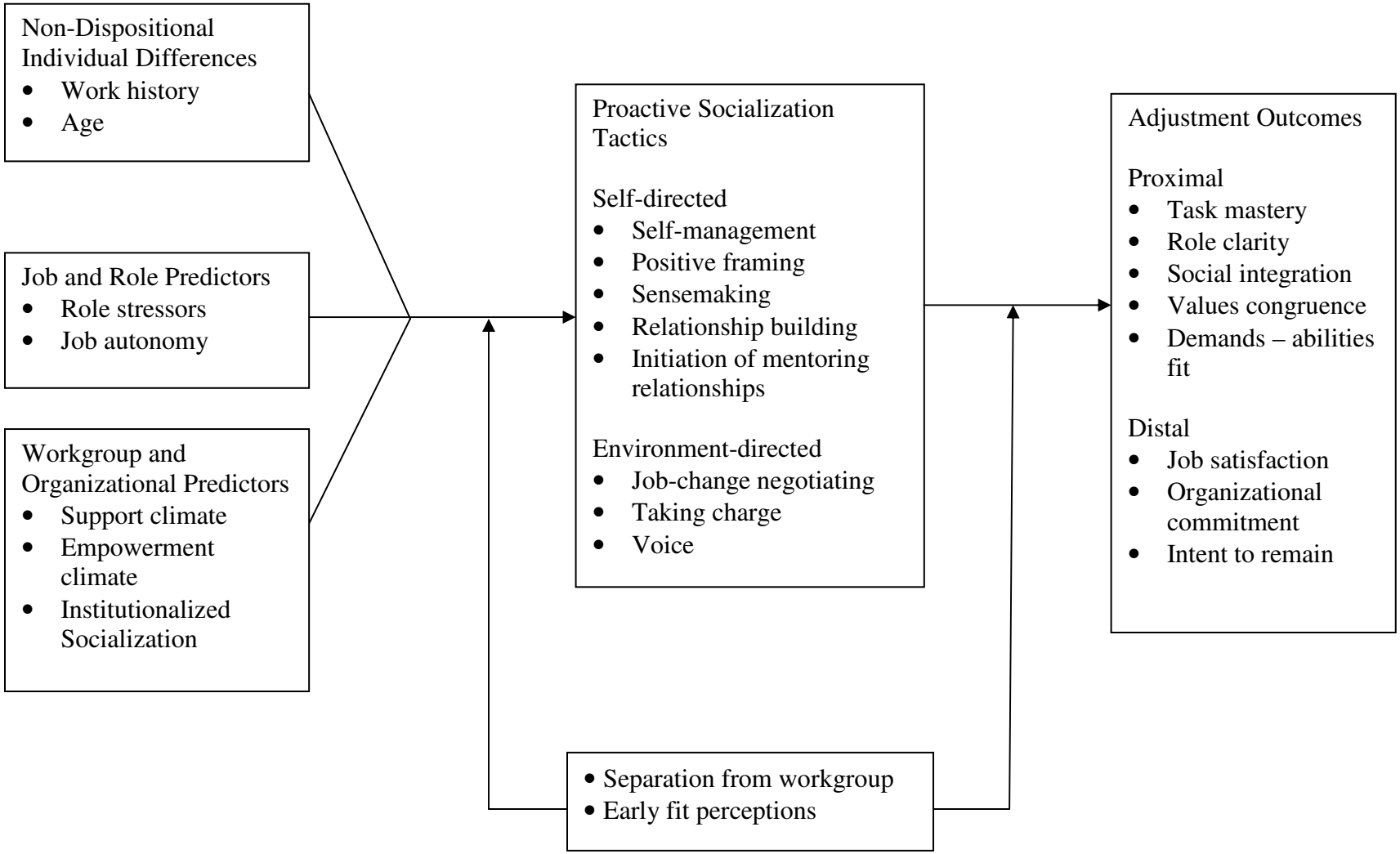

Figure 1. Contextual and Non-Dispositional Individual Difference Predictors of PST and Newcomer Adjustment

Socioemotional selectivity theory (SST, Carstensen, 1992; Carstensen, Heckhausen, & Dweck, 1998; Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999) proposes that there are two broad categories of social goals: "those related to the acquisition of knowledge and those related to the regulation of emotion" (Carstensen et al., 1999, p. 166). The theory further proposes that individuals' social behaviors are influenced by their perceptions of time in regard to lifespan; in other words, the time left in life. According to this theory, younger individuals tend to focus on preparing for the future by building their assets through the process of knowledge acquisition. As a result, younger individuals tend to engage in social activities, such as meeting new people, that help them achieve this goal. As individuals grow older and transition from the early stages of life to middle and late stages, they become more aware of their own mortality and focus on making the most of the time left in life. Older individuals realize the potential payoffs for knowledge acquisition are diminishing and, as such, they become less focused on preparing for the future. Instead, older individuals become more focused on enjoying the present time through the use of emotion regulation processes.

Selecting familiar social partners is just one of the ways that older individuals are proposed to engage in antecedent emotion regulation, which is the process of preventing negative emotions from occurring (Carstensen, Fung, & Charles, 2003). These researchers also suggest that the selection of environments and cognitive processes, such as attention and memory, play a role in the emotion regulation. For instance, when presented with pictures of faces indicating either positive, negative, or neutral emotions, older, as compared to younger, individuals seemed to pay more attention to the happy faces (Mather & Carstensen, 2003). It also has been proposed that older persons recover

emotionally from negative events more quickly due to their improved ability, as compared to younger persons, to focus on positive aspects of a negative situation (Labouvie-Vief & Blanchard-Fields, 1982; Labouvie-Vief, DeVoe, & Bulka, 1989). Consistent with SST, Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000) showed a positive correlation between age, a control variable in their socialization study, and positive framing. Therefore, it is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Age will be positively related to positive framing.

As discussed above, SST suggests that as individuals age they continue to enjoy social relationships, but that they become more selective in the relationships they begin and to which they tend. Research has shown that older adults tend to have smaller social circles than younger adults, but that the social circles of older adults have a greater proportion of individuals considered to be highly emotionally close to the focal individual (Fung, Carstensen, & Lang, 2001; Lang & Carstensen, 1994; Lang, Staudinger, & Carstensen, 1998). Research also has demonstrated that older individuals prefer to focus less on meeting new people and focus more on spending time with people that are already close to them (Carstensen, 1986, 1992; Fung, Carstensen, & Lutz, 1999). Rather than branching out and developing new relationships, older adults tend to focus on their most meaningful, core relationships. As a result of these developmental patterns, it is expected that older organizational newcomers may engage in fewer of the PSTs that have the purpose of social interaction. These include the relationship building behaviors of networking, general socializing, and building a relationship with one's boss, as well as the initiation of mentoring relationships. Younger organizational newcomers, on the other

hand, will continue to be guided by expansion motives and knowledge acquisition, which can be facilitated by meeting new people and building new relationships.

Another reason that younger newcomers would be expected to engage in more relationship building behaviors than older newcomers is the expectations of others in the workplace. Research using a sample of individuals ages 20 to 60 shows that it is expected for workers to become less interested in building relationships and more interested in mentoring others as they get older (Greller, 2000). Seeking a mentor rather than seeking to become a mentor may go against the general age-related norms that exist in the workplace. As a result, older individuals that may otherwise be inclined to seek a mentor may refrain in order to avoid embarrassment. However, the findings of one study are contrary to this logic. Finkelstein and colleagues (2003) proposed, among others, that age would be related to lower levels of relationship building. Although the correlation between these two variables was negative in direction, it was not significant. With sample sizes ranging from 61 to 90 for their analyses, it's possible that lack of power was to blame for the lack of a significant finding. Despite this finding, I propose:

Hypothesis 2: Age will be negatively related to relationship building behaviors.

Note that the sensemaking behaviors of feedback- and information-seeking are not proposed here to correlate with age. Although these behaviors may involve social interaction, the behaviors are generally for the purpose of improving one's performance rather than for the actual purpose of building relationships. Still, emotion regulation may play a role in predicting these behaviors, but the relationships may be much more complicated. For example, since older adults are motivated to maintain positive emotions

and prevent negative emotions, then a newcomer's likelihood of engaging in sensemaking behaviors may depend on both age and the predicted valence of the expected feedback. The similar may be true for environment-directed behaviors; older newcomers may be more likely than younger newcomers to take into account the expected reactions of others in the workgroup before attempting to initiate change. However, the expected complexity of these relationships puts them outside of the scope of this study, which is to begin to understand additional antecedents of PSTs. Therefore, there are not any hypotheses for age and either sensemaking or environment-directed behaviors.

Work Experience

According to Schein (1971) newcomers cross three boundaries upon entering the organization: functional, hierarchical, and inclusionary. Given this perspective, one would expect newcomers who are starting their first full-time jobs out of school to experience a greater degree of change than those who are merely switching from one job to another (Louis, 1980). However, there are two contrasting ways of thinking about how work experience affects newcomer adjustment. The first perspective states that "those with greater work experience should be less surprised by the demands of their new jobs, thereby settling into their new roles more easily" (Klynn, 2001, p. 25). This is because individuals with job experience have already experienced organizational politics and other organizational realities. As a result, they have developed coping mechanisms and strategies for navigating the organizational landscape. Also, newcomers' job experience may be a signal of their competence and expertise, leading to higher status and increased

power within the organization as compared to those with little or no work experience (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Klynn, 2001).

On the other hand, another perspective might propose that the characteristics of previous work experience make a difference. Work experience is expected to affect career and work outcomes through the mechanisms of work motivation, knowledge and skills, and work attitudes (Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998). Knowledge structures, such as schemas or mental models, are an example of knowledge that develops as a result of work experience. Mental models develop over repeated exposure to a particular situation or concept. So as individuals begin their careers, they begin to develop mental models about how to appropriately and effectively operate in the workplace. These mental models would likely include conceptions about workplace politics, task accomplishment, and relationships. The more work experience one has, the more information will be added to the model (Stotland & Canon, 1972). Therefore, individuals that have a great deal of experience in jobs or organizations similar to the new job or organization will already have models that will help them function in the new environment. Similarly, individuals that have experienced many job or organizational transitions, and thus have had many adjustment experiences, may have better models for dealing with work transitions as well, as compared to those with few transition experiences.

The degree to which one is familiar with the focal situation is posited to influence their primary appraisal, or positive framing, of the situation (Kinicki et al., 1996). Those for whom the experience is extremely unusual or unfamiliar will likely experience more shock and other negative reactions to the situation. As a result, the situation is likely to be seen more threatening than it would be to someone to whom the situation is more familiar

and common. Supporting this logic, one study did find that the number of jobs newcomers had held within the past five years, one of the study's control variables, predicted positive framing (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Hypothesis 3: Similarity of the newcomer's work experience to the focal job will be positively related to positive framing.

Hypothesis 4: The number of the newcomer's transition experiences will be positively related to positive framing.

Jones (1983) has proposed that newcomers amass a collection of tactics of how to respond to environmental uncertainty based on previous experience dealing with new situations. This collection influences how they adapt to new organizations and will affect what measures they take to adjust to the situation. Furthermore, Jones (1983) proposes that "beyond any learned response tendencies, the extent and variety of past experiences in, for example, other organizational contexts and in dealing with a wide variety of role holders will affect the way newcomers respond to new situations" (p. 466). In other words, Jones proposes that multiple dimensions of newcomers' past experiences will influence their organizational adjustment.

From social cognitive theory, we know that past experience is one of the best predictors of self-efficacy for a given task (Wood & Bandura, 1989). From this we can extrapolate that individuals that have work experience in jobs similar to the current job will be more likely to perceive that they have the capabilities necessary to perform the job effectively, given they have performed a similar job before. Similarly, those with work experience in similar environments as the focal organization may have higher levels of self-efficacy than newcomers with little related experience for dealing with the

expectations and processes that typically occur in those environments. As a result of the similarity, as Nicholson (1984) has proposed, newcomers will see little need to engage in self-directed changes during the socialization process. For instance, newcomers with highly similar work experience may see little need for performance feedback, as they are capable of self-determining how well they are performing. Those without similar work experience may need input from a supervisor or coworker in order to know whether their performance is adequate or not. Therefore, it is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: Similarity of the newcomer's work experience to the focal job will be negatively related to self-directed PST other than positive framing.

Because newcomers with similar work experience will be familiar with the types of tasks involved in the current job, they will be likely to have more preconceived ideas or preferences about how to perform the tasks at hand and how organizations should operate in regard to the focal job. As a result, it is expected that those with similar work experience will attempt to structure the environment, in terms of how the job is performed and how the workgroup operates, to conform to those expectations. Those that do not have similar work experience, however, will not have strong mental models for how the work should be performed and, therefore, will make fewer attempts to restructure the environment. Therefore, it is proposed that individuals that have more similar work experience will be more likely than those with less similar work experience to initiate job and workgroup-related changes as a means of adjustment. For example, newcomers who are highly familiar with the work at hand may suggest process changes to a supervisor based on preferences developed when performing a similar job in another

organization. Newcomers who are less familiar with the job will have little frame of reference and, therefore, accept workgroup processes as they are. Therefore, it is proposed:

Hypothesis 6: Similarity of the newcomer's work experience to the focal job will be positively related to environment-directed PSTs.

It is necessary here to broach the issue of measurement of work experience. Prior research has explored the role of work experience on socialization with disappointing results. I believe this is due to the way in which work experience was conceptualized in those studies. For instance, Adkins (1995) proposed that similarity of previous work experience to the new job would positively predict realism of expectations, adjustment outcomes, and distal outcomes, such as performance and job satisfaction. Except for a positive relationship between similarity of work experience and job satisfaction, these hypotheses were largely unsubstantiated. Adkins suggested that one potential reason for the lack of effect of previous work experience on adjustment and other outcomes was the way in which previous work experience was operationalized and suggested that researchers do a better job of identifying work experience dimensions in future research. In this study, similarity of work experience was operationalized as "number of months of healthcare experience in any setting" during the subjects' five most recent jobs (Adkins, 1995, p. 843). However, the type of organizations for which the subjects had worked was not taken into account. The author proposed that similarity of organizations for which newcomers had worked to the focal organization, whether the work experience was in the public or private sector, may have affected adjustment.

I plan to address this issue by relying on a more complex representation of work experience. Quiñones, Ford, and Teachout (1995) proposed a framework that addresses two separate dimensions of work experience: measurement mode and level of specificity. Measurement mode refers to how work experience is actually quantified and may either be in terms of amount, time, or type. Level of specificity refers to the aspect of work experience, task, job, or organization, being quantified. Amount of tasks refers to the number of times an individual has performed a particular type of task; amount of jobs refers to the number of jobs an individual has held; and the amount of organizations refers to the number of organizations of which an individual has been a member. In regard to the organizational level of specificity, time refers to the length of time an individual has worked with a particular organization and type refers to characteristics of a particular organization, such as its industry or nonprofit status. This representation is especially useful to explore the role that work experience plays in the socialization process, because it helps differentiate between, for instance, the amount of time an individual has spent performing a particular type of task, the amount of time an individual has spent in a particular type of organization, and the number of different job titles an individual has held. Considering socialization outcomes such as task mastery, role clarity, and values congruence, these different representations of individuals' work experience may help disentangle the effects of various aspects of work experience on adjustment.

Contextual Antecedents of PSTs

A recent critique of the self-regulation literature called for more research examining the roles of job design and organizational context on self-regulatory processes

(Wood, 2005). This analysis also identified dysfunctional work environments, autonomy and flexibility, error tolerance, and task support, among others, as job and organizational factors that may stimulate or facilitate self-regulation. In this section, I will identify five job- or organization-related constructs, most of which are related to the types of phenomena that Wood identified, as potential antecedents of PSTs. Role stressors relate to the issue of dysfunctional work cultures. Job autonomy and empowerment climate relate to the concepts of autonomy, flexibility, and error tolerance. Support climate and institutionalized socialization relate somewhat to Wood's proposed antecedent of task support.

Role Stressors

Role stressors are characteristics of one's work role that can create discord for the worker. This research will focus on the role stressors of role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload. Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) define role conflict in terms of incongruence and incompatibility between role requirements or standards. This incompatibility can concern the employee's personal standards, the time, resources, and capabilities required of the role, conflict between different roles fulfilled by the same employee, and conflicting standards of others within the organization, including the organization itself. Rizzo and colleagues (1970) define role ambiguity as the degree to which one can predict the consequences of behavior, and the degree to which behavioral requirements of the role are defined and able to be understood. Role stressors generally have been associated with undesirable outcomes, such as lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment, lower job performance, higher strain, and higher turnover

intentions (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001; Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Kushnir & Melamed, 1991).

Role overload is defined as having too much work to do in a given time period (Rizzo et al., 1970). Newcomers experiencing role overload perceive that they are not able to accomplish everything that is required of them on time. Therefore, it is expected that they will spend all of their time and resources attempting to keep up with the work. In other words, newcomers experiencing high levels of overload will not have the time to engage in PSTs despite its potential long-term benefits, as they will be struggling to manage their short-term job responsibilities. Newcomers with lower levels of role overload, on the other hand, will have more time available to them in order to consider the potential benefits of PSTs to their adjustment. I propose:

Hypothesis 7: Role overload will be negatively related to newcomer PSTs.

Role stressors create tension and discomfort by creating uncertainty. When faced with role stressors, individuals have to determine which behaviors are expected of them, decide between multiple incompatible prescribed behaviors, or attempt to perform the required behaviors in too little time (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Individuals' experience of role stressors, especially during the socialization period, likely will be taken as a signal that future organizational experiences will be stressful and difficult to navigate. As a result, newcomers experiencing high levels of role stressors will be more pessimistic about working within the organization. Newcomers experiencing low levels of role stressors, on the other hand, may take this as a signal that future experiences in the current job will be clear and simple to deal with. This, in turn, will lead them to feel more optimistic about their situations. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 8: Role ambiguity and role conflict will be negatively related to newcomer positive framing.

Individuals experiencing high levels of ambiguity do not have a clear understanding of what is expected of them. Thus, it is expected that these individuals will take measures that may specifically help them define their roles more clearly. Sensemaking behaviors (i.e., feedback- and information-seeking) involve seeking additional information about one's job, organization, and performance. This type of information may help the newcomer develop a better idea of their role content and boundaries. Individuals with lower levels of role ambiguity already have a strong understanding of their roles and would not be expected to exert additional effort to seek role-related information. Therefore it is expected:

Hypothesis 9: Role ambiguity will be positively related to newcomer sensemaking.

Newcomers experiencing role conflict do not necessarily have a difficult time understanding what is expected of them. However, their role duties cannot be carried out without sacrificing another duty required by either the same role or a different role that the newcomer occupies. Newcomers in this situation perceive that their problem is a specific function of the way their job is structured or of the way their roles fit into the organization. As a result, they will likely perceive that the most logical way to attempt to solve the problem would be by attempting to change the job or role in some way as to alleviate the conflict. The newcomer may do this by engaging in job-change negotiating, if the problem is seem as being specifically related to the job duties, or the newcomer may choose taking charge behaviors if the problem seems to extend to workgroup

structure or other issues outside of just the job. In either case, newcomers may choose to make suggestions, or engage in voice behavior, rather than actually attempt to carryout change. Newcomers experiencing low levels of role conflict are expected to be less likely to make these changes as they should be less likely to see a need for these changes. I propose:

Hypothesis 10: Role conflict will be positively related to newcomers' performance of environment-directed PST.

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy is the amount of latitude allowed in regard to how the job is carried out (Hackman, 1980). Bateman and Crant (1993) have contended that "proactive behavior may be more likely in weak situations that are less constraining of behavioral options" (p. 115). One type of proactive behavior related to task accomplishment is job crafting. Defined as "the physical and cognitive changes individuals make in the task or relational boundaries of their work," Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001, p. 179) propose that motivation to craft one's job is influenced by both motivation to craft, perception of opportunity to craft, and other factors. Job autonomy may provide both of the first two factors. First, jobs with high levels of autonomy are by definition more able to be customized by workers. Second, job autonomy is understood to have motivational effects on workers (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Therefore, individuals perceiving high levels of autonomy in their jobs may be more likely to perform behaviors directed at changing the way work is conducted. Those perceiving low levels of autonomy both lack the motivating benefit of autonomy and are less likely to perceive that efforts to change their

jobs would be necessary, helpful, or even allowed. As a result, they would be less likely to engage in environment-directed PSTs.

Nicholson's (1984) theory of work role transitions also suggests that the degree to which a job offers discretion in how it is performed will affect the degree to which a newcomer seeks to change the way the work is performed. The theory proposes that work roles that have a high degree of autonomy provide little in the way of models or schemas for how the work is to be carried out. Even if newcomers did not want to customize the roles to suit themselves, they would have to because there are few signals regarding the standard way of performing the work. On the other hand, roles in which autonomy is not characteristic provide clearer models for how the work should be done, or at least provide evidence showing how others have performed the work.

Hypothesis 11: Newcomer job autonomy will be positively related to newcomers' performance of environment-directed PSTs.

Support Climate

Leavy (1983) defines social support as "the availability of helping relationships and the quality of those relationships" (p. 5). Conceptualizations of social support include, among others, organizational support, supervisor support, and coworker support.

Individuals perceiving high levels of support from the work environment will be more likely to frame their situations positively during socialization because they are more likely to feel that they have the resources that effectively deal with this situation. Those providing support in the workplace may include supervisors, coworkers, and the organization overall. On the other hand, those perceiving low levels of support in the workplace will be less likely to feel that they have the resources necessary to surmount

obstacles in the work environment, and are therefore will put a more negative frame on their situations. Supporting this contention, a recent meta-analysis showed that not only did social support reduce the experience of strain on individuals, but social support resulted in reduced perception of stressors (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999).

Hypothesis 12: The climate for support of the workgroup will be positively related to positive framing.

Empowerment Climate

Empowerment is a motivational construct that concerns individuals' perceptions of their work roles. There are several constructs related to empowerment, including empowering organizational structures and empowering leader behaviors. Here, I focus on the actual experience of being empowered. At the individual level, this is called *psychological empowerment*. Psychological empowerment is defined as "a set of psychological states that are necessary for individuals to feel a sense of control in relation to their work" (Spreitzer, 2008, p. 62). As with the other workgroup-level variables above, if individuals within a workgroup have similar psychological empowerment perceptions, we can aggregate to the workgroup level in order to create empowerment climate. Empowerment climate simply consists of a workgroup's shared perceptions of psychological empowerment. This construct differs from the construct of the same name used in a study by Seibert, Silver, and Randolph (2004). In this study empowerment climate is defined as "employees' shared perceptions of managerial structures, policies, and practices related to empowerment" (Seibert et al., 2004, p. 333), which is really a structural variable that is an antecedent to empowerment perceptions (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007). The current study's construct also differs from team

empowerment (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997), as additional criteria must be met in order for a workgroup to be considered a team. In this study, empowerment climate is considered to be a contextual variable that influences individual behavior thorough the mediator of psychological empowerment.

Psychological empowerment is composed of four cognitive-emotional states: meaning, which concerns the value of the work and how well it fits with the individual's own values and beliefs; competence, which is the extent to which one is able to perform work tasks; self-determination or choice, which reflects decision making about and responsibly for one's behavior; and impact, which is the degree to which one is able to influence or control outcomes in the workplace (Spreitzer, 1997, 2008; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Studies have shown empowerment to be related to attitudinal outcomes such as higher job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and innovation, and lower job strain and turnover (e.g., Aryee & Chen, 2006; Carless, 2004; Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Seibert et al., 2004; Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997). Empowerment also has been shown to predict performance-related constructs, including motivation to perform, employee effectiveness, employee productivity, and newcomer role performance (Chen et al., 2007; Chen & Klimoski, 2003; Koberg et al., 1999; Liden et al., 2000; Seibert et al., 2004; Spreitzer et al., 1997).

Newcomers in workgroups that have strong empowerment climates are likely to become empowered themselves for at least two reasons. First, if the workgroup empowerment was caused by structural factors such as leader behavior, the design of the work, and reward systems, then these factors are likely to have the same impact on

newcomers as they had on the incumbent workgroup members. Second, newcomers may become empowered by observing the actions of their empowered coworkers. By seeing that their coworkers behave in a way that indicates that they, for instance, expect to be able to influence work outcomes and take responsibility for their actions, newcomers themselves may begin to understand that empowerment is an expectation in the workgroup and begin to feel empowered. Consistent with this, group-level climate predictors of psychological empowerment have included participative work climate (Spreitzer, 1996) and empowering leadership climate (Chen et al., 2007).

Highly empowered newcomers have a high degree of control over their work and also have a high degree of competence to accomplish their work. They care about the work they do and take responsibility for their role in accomplishing work-related goals. As such, highly empowered newcomers by definition have a more proactive orientation toward their work than less empowered newcomers (Spreitzer, 2008). As a result, highly empowered newcomers may feel proactive toward their adjustment as well. Because empowered newcomers care about their work, feel competent to perform, feel that their performance can impact outcomes, and they feel responsible for their actions, it would be expected that they would do whatever they could to help themselves adjust to the work environment in order to perform better in their work roles. Newcomers with lower levels of empowerment may not care as much about their work or may not feel that they can really have an impact anyway, and therefore they will not make as much of an effort to adjust to the environment. Therefore, I expect the following:

Hypothesis 13: Workgroup empowerment climate will be positively related to newcomer PST, as mediated by newcomer psychological empowerment.

Institutionalized Socialization

Institutionalized socialization (Jones, 1986; Van Maanen & Schein, 1979) is designed to enhance newcomer adjustment by reducing uncertainty and providing learning opportunities. Institutionalized socialization, by definition, is also standardized, such that all newcomers in a particular group receive the same experiences and materials. In highly institutional programs newcomers are also taught to behave in a manner that is in accordance with established organizational norms and routines. Consistent with prior research and theory, this study will include proximal outcomes of task mastery, role clarity, social integration, and values congruence. The distal outcomes will include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and actual turnover.

Individualized socialization, on the other hand, which is operationalized as the lack of institutionalized socialization, leaves newcomers to socialize themselves. Therefore, learning will be specific to the type of information the newcomer seeks and is open to. Newcomers will be less likely to have a role model who shows them one specific way to do things; instead they have to figure it out for themselves. As a result of this logic, institutionalized socialization is generally positively related to custodial role orientation and negatively related to innovative role orientation (e.g. Jones, 1986). Individuals who take an innovative perspective on task performance are more likely to attempt to change their jobs to suit their own strengths and preferences than those who take a more custodial orientation and plan to perform the job in the way they were taught.

Hypothesis 14: Institutionalized socialization tactics will be positively related to self-directed PSTs, as mediated by role orientation.

Hypothesis 15: Institutionalized socialization tactics will be negatively related to environment-directed PSTs, as mediated by role orientation.

CHAPTER 5: OUTCOMES OF PROACTIVE SOCIALIZATION TACTICS

Newcomer adjustment is typically operationalized as role clarity, task mastery, and social integration (Bauer et al., 2007). These are generally called proximal outcomes of socialization. Regarding distal outcomes of socialization, Feldman has proposed that remaining with the organization, innovation and cooperation, and carrying out role assignments are the appropriate behavioral outcomes. Satisfaction, internal work motivation, and job involvement are the appropriate affective outcomes, according to his model. In his seminal socialization study, Jones (1986) examined role orientation and role stressors as proximal outcomes, and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and intent to quit as distal outcomes. It is expected that as newcomers adjust to their jobs and organizations, as assessed by the proximal adjustment outcomes, this adjustment will contribute to the more broadly applicable desirable outcomes called distal outcomes.

As discussed in Chapter 4, it is expected that PSTs will facilitate newcomer adjustment by enhancing the self-regulation process, reducing uncertainty, and by increasing interaction between newcomers and veterans. However, in the case of environment-directed behaviors there may be counterinfluences to contend with. Moreland and Levine (2001) have suggested that newcomers often fail in their attempts to socialize themselves. In addition to the roles they fulfill related to their jobs and workgroups, there are role expectations of organizational newcomers in general. The socialization literature clearly tells us that newcomers are expected to be full of uncertainty and anxiety; they are expected to seek information and model behavior (e.g., Louis, 1980; Nicholson & West, 1988). Even when newcomers are described as being

proactive, this proactivity generally refers to information seeking and development of relationships, not attempts to make changes that affect veteran employees. Therefore, unless the newcomer was initially presented as being brought into the organization in order to lead a change or fix a problem, newcomers' active attempts to make changes to the organizational environment may be surprising to veterans given the expected behavior of the newcomer. When individuals are faced with unexpected role changes, such as an organizational newcomer behaving very differently from how a newcomer is expected to behave, an anxiety reaction is expected (Stotland & Canon, 1972). Organizational veterans may react negatively and resist newcomers' suggested changes, especially if it is perceived that the newcomer does not yet understand the job workgroup, or organization, or that the newcomer does not respect the established procedures and policies of the organization.

Although environment-directed proactive behaviors may contribute to newcomer self-regulation, the expected negative reactions of veterans may hinder any positive effects on adjustment these behaviors otherwise might have had. Social integration, one indicator of adjustment, would be hindered if veterans had negative reactions to newcomers' behaviors. Role clarity, another component of adjustment, also may be hindered as negative reactions would be a signal that to newcomers that they are not conforming to role expectations. Finally, newcomers that choose to perform environment-directed PSTs may not be spending enough time on task mastery. Therefore, I propose:

Hypothesis 16: Newcomers' self-directed PSTs will positively relate to adjustment outcomes.

Hypothesis 17: Newcomers' environment-directed PSTs will positively relate to adjustment outcomes, but the relationship will be weaker than the self-directed PSTs – adjustment relationship.

The antecedents proposed in this model are expected to relate to adjustment outcomes, due in part to the PSTs. However, the antecedents also may have direct relationships to the outcomes, or relationships that are mediated by unmeasured variables. For example, research shows that there is a rather complex relationship between age and job satisfaction (e.g., Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996; Hochwarter, Ferris, Perrewé, Witt, & Kiewitz, 2001; Wright & Hamilton, 1978). Also, research has shown direct relationships between institutionalized socialization tactics and several proximal and distal adjustment outcomes (e.g., Allen & Meyer, 1990b; Ashforth & Saks, 1996; Cable & Parsons, 2001). I propose the following:

Hypothesis 18: Work history, age, job autonomy, support climate, empowerment climate, and institutionalized socialization will positively relate to newcomers' adjustment outcomes. Role stressors will negatively relate to newcomers' adjustment outcomes.

Hypothesis 19: Newcomers' PSTs will partially mediate the relationship between the proposed antecedents and adjustment outcomes.

CHAPTER 6: THE MODERATING ROLES OF SEPARATION AND FIT

Separation from Workgroup

The workgroup-level contextual variables are expected to influence newcomers via the newcomers' interactions with other workgroup members and the supervisor, as well as exposure to the policies and practices of the workgroup. Being separated from the workgroup for significant periods of time may affect the extent to which workgroup-level contextual factors influence newcomers' behaviors. This type of regular separation would be most likely to occur through flexible work programs such as telecommuting, either on the part of the newcomer or other workgroup members.

One way newcomers learn is through observation and modeling of more experienced organizational members (Bandura, 1986, 1991). Physical separation of newcomers from supervisors and workgroup members is likely to hinder this process. Social relationships and communication of explicit information may be hindered as well. Both media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984) and social presence theory (Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976) posit that face-to-face communication improves communication quality and interpersonal relationships by allowing for better reception of social and emotional cues. Physical separation from the rest of one's workgroup should not only have a detrimental effect on the quality of communication, but also on the quantity. Physical separation reduces the ease and spontaneity of providing feedback and other information (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Given these effects, it is expected that the more the newcomer is physically separated from the workgroup, the less of an impact contextual characteristics will have on newcomer's proactive behaviors.

Separation from the workgroup also may influence the relationship between PSTs and adjustment outcomes. Newcomers who spend a great deal of time away from the office and other workgroup members may miss out on many opportunities to learn the organizational culture and adjust to their jobs. Schein (1983) named several factors responsible for embedding organizational culture in newcomers, including formal statements of organizational philosophy and values, design of physical space and work environments, language, deliberate role modeling, stories, legends, and myths, and leader reactions to critical events. When newcomers spend significant amounts of time working away from the office they are probably exposed to these mechanisms in lesser amounts. Therefore, it may be even more important for these newcomers to engage in proactive behavior in order to adjust to their new settings. PSTs may compensate for lack of in-person interaction with the workgroup and exposure to the workplace, in part because it requires interaction with workgroup members. Similarly, Kim and colleagues (2005) found that certain types of PSTs could compensate for lack of institutionalized socialization in regard to the outcome of P-O fit. I therefore propose:

Hypothesis 20: The degree to which the newcomer is physically separated from the workgroup will weaken the relationship between contextual antecedents and newcomer PSTs.

Hypothesis 21: The degree to which the newcomer is physically separated from the workgroup will strengthen the relationship between newcomer PSTs and newcomer adjustment.

Early Fit Perceptions

The degree to which newcomers fit with their jobs and organizations may influence the relationships between antecedents and PSTs and the relationships between PSTs and adjustment outcomes. The fit literature suggests that newcomers have perceptions about their degree of fit with their environments and that these fit perceptions play a key role in some of the job-related decisions that individuals make. Schneider's (1987a, 1987b) attraction – selection – attrition theory posits that fit perceptions influence the organizational environments that individuals find attractive, and that once an individual is a member of the organization, perceptions of low fit influence exit decisions. Essentially, this theory posits that individuals seek to maximize fit with their environments. Research has provided some support for this theory. P-O fit also has been shown to predict organizational preference in organizational selection studies (e.g., Judge & Bretz, 1992; Tom, 1971). Two recent meta-analyses have shown that P-O fit relates to behavioral outcomes, including performance, turnover, and organizational citizenship behavior (Hoffman & Woehr, 2006; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Research also has shown the predictive power of fit expectations or perceptions prior to or immediately after organizational entry (e.g., Carr et al., 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 2002).

Fit is broadly defined as compatibility (Kristof, 1996); this research will concern newcomers' compatibility with their jobs and organizations (i.e., P-J fit and P-O fit). At a broad level, these fit perceptions capture elements of the adjustment outcomes. Fit with organizations, generally operationalized as value similarity, concerns value congruence and social integration. Fit with jobs, which is generally operationalized as the degree to which the individual has the knowledge and skills necessary to fulfill the job

requirements, relates to aspects of task mastery and role clarity (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Kristof, 1996). Newcomers may use their evaluations of compatibility with aspects of the environment to determine whether or not they need to take action to match the environment and job requirements better. These fit perceptions then may interact with the proposed antecedents of PSTs, such that they affect the desire to improve adjustment that was activated by any given PSTs antecedent. Newcomers with low fit perceptions will be more responsive to individual, job, and workgroup cues to engage in PSTs. Those with high fit perceptions will be less responsive to the proposed antecedents, as they will perceive that adjustment is not a problem. I propose:

Hypothesis 22: Early fit perceptions will moderate the relationship between the antecedents and newcomer PSTs such that the relationship will be stronger when perceived fit is low and weaker when perceived fit is high.

Similar to separation from the workgroup, early fit perceptions also may influence the degree to which PSTs relate to adjustment outcomes. For newcomers that perceive low levels of fit with the environment shortly after entry, the degree to which PSTs is performed may be especially important in predicting proximal and distal outcomes. High levels of PSTs for those perceiving low levels of fit may help individuals adjust and result in positive outcomes. Low levels of PSTs performed by newcomers with perceptions of low fit will likely leave the newcomer with low levels of adjustment. For newcomers with high perceptions of fit, however, PSTs are not necessary for adjustment and, thus, will have less of an impact on positive outcomes.

Hypothesis 23: Early fit perceptions will moderate the relationships between the newcomer PSTs and adjustment such that the relationships will be stronger when perceived fit is low and weaker when perceived fit is high.

CHAPTER 7: METHODS

Sample Description

One of the purposes of this research is to further understand potential antecedents of newcomer proactive behavior. These antecedents included age, work experience, and job and workgroup characteristics. Therefore, it was important to find a research site that not only had a fairly consistent influx of new employees, but also had employees in a wide variety of job types in order to provide variance on antecedent variables such as job autonomy and empowerment. Since age and work experience were hypothesized variables as well, it was important that newcomers in the sample had a variety of ages as well as job types.

The actual sample for this research included three groups of participants. The largest group consisted of new employees hired at a major university in the southeastern United States (US). These participants accounted for approximately 85% of the Survey 1 participants. These subjects were employed in a wide variety of jobs, including academic faculty, research institute faculty, and staff, such as librarians, custodians, and police officers. The majority of new hires included in the sample worked on the university's main campus, and almost all worked at locations within the same metropolitan area as the university. The second group, accounting for about 7% of the Survey 1 participants, contained recent graduates of an undergraduate management program at a major university in the southeastern United States. Examples of their job descriptions include tax analyst, real estate specialist, and consultant. The third group accounted for approximately 8% of the Survey 1 participants and consisted of members of the general population. The job descriptions of these participants included truck driver, process

engineer, and Vice President of Testing Services. All research participants had started working a new job within approximately six weeks of participating in the first survey.

Despite the variety of job types, overall this was a highly educated sample with newcomers in jobs that tended to be high-level or highly autonomous in nature. In the main sample consisting of the university employees, 50% of those who provided a job title had a title that contained one of the following words: professor, post (as in "postdoctoral fellow"), engineer, specialist, scientist, or scholar. The majority of participants (55%) had a graduate degree, whereas 6% have some graduate education but not a graduate degree, and 29% have a bachelor's degree.

The final sample for this research consisted of between 85 and 112 subjects, depending on the analysis being conducted. These subjects ranged in age from 22 to 65, with an average age of 33.59 years. Age was an especially important issue to this research for two reasons. The first reason was that age is hypothesized to relate to PSTs. The second was to enhance the value of this research. Socialization research has often been conducted using samples of recent college graduates that have average ages around 22 and, more recently, MBA graduates that have average ages of about 29. Although the average age of the sample in this study is not a great deal higher than a typical MBA sample, the wider range may provide additional insight into how age influences the socialization process.

Work experience was another important variable. Participants in this research had an average of eight years of full-time work experience prior to the new job. This ranged from no full-time work experience at all to approximately 46 years of experience. This range, which is wider than the range found in most socialization studies, allowed an

examination of the role of work experience in the socialization process. Regarding race and gender, this sample was 65% male and 80% White.

Data Collection Procedures

This study consisted of three new hire surveys, administered approximately six to eight weeks apart. The two-month time period between data collections is consistent with the time period that Wesson and Gogus (2005) used in their recent study. Although three months is a commonly used time period between study waves in the socialization literature, this shorter time period was used in order to get complete data from as many subjects as possible before the end of the six-month probationary period for those in the largest sample group.

Survey 1 assessed newcomers in regard to control variables, such as proactive personality. The first survey also captured newcomers' work history and age information. Currently, new staff hires in the main sample group consisting of new employees at a university, are recommended to attend, but not required to attend, the staff orientation sessions conducted by the human resources department. Immediately prior to several of these orientation sessions, Survey 1 was administered via a paper survey to new hires that volunteered to participate. Orientation sessions are held about twice a month, so most newcomers will have been on the job from one day to a few weeks when taking Survey 1. The orientation sessions include general information about the university's mission, culture, students, and achievement, as well as extensive information regarding benefits. New hires are given assistance with completion of paperwork for their health care and retirement benefits. Survey 1 also was administered at the faculty orientation session held in August 2008.

Regarding participants that were in other sample groups (i.e., the recent management graduates or members of the general population), it is unknown the extent to which they were required to attend and orientation program at their new jobs. New hires that did not complete a survey at an orientation session, including new hires in the recent management graduate and general population sample groups, were sent an invitation to participate in Survey 1 via e-mail. In this e-mail, subjects were directed to a website at which they would complete the survey.

Survey 1 participants were invited to participate in Surveys 2 and 3 via an e-mail that directed them to the survey's website. The second survey asked newcomers about their levels of PSTs as well as their perceptions regarding the job and workgroup contextual variables. Survey 3 assessed newcomers' adjustment, satisfaction, commitment, and intent to remain with the organization. In order to facilitate survey administration, I organized Survey 1 respondents into cohorts based on the dates they were invited to participate in Survey 1. Cohort members were sent invitations to Survey 2 and Survey 3 at the same time. A limited amount of funds was available for survey incentives, which I distributed by holding a drawing for a cohort or group of cohorts whose members participated in a particular survey. Prizes included gift certificates to major retailers or cash added to an employee's paycheck.

Since newcomers needed to be contacted for follow-up surveys, the newcomer data was not anonymous. Any identifying information collected has been kept in strictest confidence and was only be available to the researcher. No identifying information regarding participants will be included in any of the research reports. The university's human resources department will receive a summary report of key research findings upon

completion of the research and analysis of the data. From this report they may gain additional insight regarding the benefits of newcomer PSTs to the organization, factors that may facilitate or hinder PSTs, differences in workgroups and job types on the job and workgroup factors, and the role that age and work experience may play in the socialization process. If the organization desires, this report also may be provided to research participants.

Power Analysis and Sample Size

There are two basic types of errors that concern researchers in regard to hypothesis testing. The first, Type I error, is incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis. This error is managed by limiting alpha, which is the probability of committing a Type I error. The second type of error, Type II error, is incorrectly accepting the null hypothesis. In other words, Type II error is the failure to find an effect in a sample that actually exists in the population. Type II error is controlled by limiting beta (β), the probability is of committing a Type II error. Power (1-β) is a function of sample size, effect size, number of predictors, and alpha (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). I conducted a power analysis for this study in order to obtain an estimate of the sample size necessary to find the expected effects. I chose to use Cohen's *f*-statistic and power tables in order to obtain the sample size estimate.

There will be two sets of individual-level analyses: prediction of PSTs and prediction of the adjustment outcomes. In order to conduct the power analysis, I had to make several assumptions and decisions. The first decision was to actually determine my power level goal. Power levels of .70 to .90 are generally considered to be acceptable (Cohen et al., 2003). However, several researchers advocate .80 as the optimal balance

between precision and practicality (Cohen et al., 2003; Keppel, 1991). Therefore, I computed analyses for both .70 as a minimum level and .80 as an optimal level of power.

The next decision to be made was regarding the alpha level for my hypothesis tests, which I set to .05. This level is generally accepted for behavioral research. The third activity was to compute the number of predictors (k). The maximum number of predictors will occur in the analysis of the relationship between PSTs and outcomes, in which there will be 8 to 11 predictors, depending on how the measures are grouped.

The final activity before was to compute an estimate of the expected effect size. In order to arrive at this estimate, I reviewed several recent studies related to PSTs and noted the *R*-squared values reported for hypothesis tests of both antecedents and outcomes of PSTs. I arrived at a prediction of likely *R*-squared values for this study ranging from .08 to .15. From this range, I computed a range of predicted population effect sizes (f^2) using equation 1 (Cohen et al., 2003). Then, using equation 2 and the power tables (Cohen et al., 2003) to find the appropriate value for L, I computed the required sample size for the specifications stated above. The results show a necessary sample size between 79 and 172, inclusive, for a power level of .70, and between 95 and 205 inclusive for a power level of .80. From this I conclude that the ideal sample size for this study is 205, given the wide range of potential effect sizes. However, given potential difficulty of obtaining this number of subjects in the sample being used for this study, it may not be possible to obtain this sample size in a reasonable period of time. The midpoint of the overall range of 79 to 205 subjects is 142. This value provides a reasonable chance of having sufficient power given the effect size estimates and was more likely to be attained. Therefore, my sample size goal was 142.

$$f^2 = R^2 / (1 - R^2) \qquad (1)$$

$$n^* = L / f^2 + k + 1 \qquad (2)$$

I was unable to reach a final sample size of 142 subjects. Counting surveys that were mostly complete with only minimal missing data, the sample size for Survey 1 was 186, 105 for Survey 2, and 107 for Survey 3. Overall, approximately 370 individuals from the main sample group (new university employees) were invited to participate in the research, either in person at an orientation session, via e-mail, or both. In order to improve the number of responses for Survey 3, any subject that participated in either Survey 1 or Survey 2 was invited to participate in Survey 3. Therefore, the effective sample size for analyses involving variables from multiple time periods will always be less than 105.

Measures

Correlations between the variables are shown in Table 1. Variables 1 through 9 in the table were measured in Survey 1, 10 through 38 in Survey 2, and 39 through 47 in Survey 3.

Age, Work Experience, and Physical Separation from the Workgroup

Age was assessed with a single open-ended question in Survey 1 (see Appendix for complete survey measures). Age ranged from 22 to 65 with a mean of 33.60 (*SD* = 9.00).

Regarding work experience, this research was concerned with three aspects. The first aspect was the overall amount of time the individual has spent working, as time spent in the workforce in general may contribute to newcomers' adjustment. The second

aspect was similarity of work experience to the focal job. In order to determine this, it is necessary to know the amount of time the newcomer has spent on tasks like the ones being done in this job and in environments or industries similar to the one in the focal job. The third aspect concerned the number of socialization experiences, which can be determined from the number of organization changes and the number of job changes newcomers have made throughout the course of their work histories. With this in mind, work experience was measured with a series of questions designed for this study, but based on the concepts and measures of work experience researchers (i.e., Quiñones et al., 1995; Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998; Weekley & Jones, 1997; Weekley & Ployhart, 2005).

Table 1. Correlations, Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities

Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	33.60	9.00	--							
2. Proactive Pers.	5.15	1.05	.18*	*.81*						
3. Desire Control	4.67	1.24	.25**	.29**	*.92*					
4. Early P-O fit	5.68	1.08	.19**	.27**	.23**	*.92*				
5. Early P-J fit	6.31	0.76	.15*	.07	.11	.53**	*.86*			
6. Time Employed	8.36	9.30	.78**	.25**	.24**	.25**	.14	--		
7. Time in Industry	3.57	4.65	.25**	-.04	.05	-.02	.07	.18*	--	
8. Transition Exp.	0.00	0.82	.66**	.16*	.27**	.12	.05	.59**	.03	--
9. Physical Separation	1.71	1.40	-.11	-.16*	-.04	-.01	-.03	-.12	.00	-.13
10. Role Novelty	2.58	0.77	.19*	-.15	-.05	.00	.14	.16	.18	.02
11. Role Ambiguity	2.65	1.00	-.09	-.03	.04	-.18	-.34**	-.11	-.10	.06
12. Role Conflict	2.89	1.07	.13	.24*	.22*	-.11	-.29**	.22*	-.05	.25**
13. Role Overload	2.76	1.25	.07	.12	.01	-.08	-.18	.08	.00	.03
14. Job Autonomy	5.32	0.85	.12	-.10	.01	-.08	.29**	-.02	.00	-.05
15. Emp_Meaning	5.93	1.14	.28**	.00	.01	.16	.47**	.21*	.13	.11
16. Emp_Comp.	5.74	0.90	.16	.10	.10	.08	.34**	.23*	.05	.18
17. Emp_Self-Det.	5.67	1.00	.14	.01	.08	-.12	.16	.01	.07	-.04
18. Emp_Impact	3.77	1.65	.33**	.14	.31**	.25**	.26**	.34**	.16	.29**
19. Emp_total	5.28	0.80	.36**	.10	.22*	.17	.44**	.32**	.16	.22*
20. POS	5.39	0.94	.13	.16	.13	.40**	.34**	.15	.02	.04
21. InstSoc_Coll.	4.00	1.14	-.11	-.01	-.14	.13	.18	-.10	.04	-.27**
22. InstSoc_Inv.	5.45	0.97	.13	.03	.07	.31**	.27**	.17	.02	.03
23. InstSoc_Seq.	4.39	1.03	.05	-.02	-.17	.30**	.15	.06	.11	-.15
24. InstSoc_Serial	4.73	1.06	.03	.00	-.05	.23*	.13	.13	-.06	-.03
25. InstSoc_Fixed	4.34	1.04	.09	-.02	-.12	.19	.09	.07	.11	-.10
26. InstSoc _Total	4.44	0.67	.05	.04	-.14	.29**	.18	.08	.07	-.15
27. Positive Framing	5.68	1.06	.16	.07	.09	.27**	.12	.23*	.07	.23*
28. Feedback Seeking	4.46	1.61	.09	.20*	.20*	.25*	.25*	.12	.07	.11
29. Info. Seeking	5.27	1.29	.16	.19*	.26**	.28**	.10	.16	-.02	.21*
30. General Socializing	4.64	1.43	.05	.02	-.09	.00	.12	.05	-.01	-.04
31. Build – Boss	4.67	1.20	.11	.21*	.15	.27**	.28**	.21*	.00	.22*
32. Networking	4.47	1.38	.04	.11	.04	.17	.16	.11	-.16	.06
33. Mentor Initiating	4.17	1.39	.13	.30**	.22*	.13	.02	.13	.00	.25*
34. Self-management	5.36	0.75	.14	.14	.07	.14	.32**	.09	.00	.08
35. Feedback Monitor.	5.30	1.23	-.06	.00	-.03	.12	-.05	-.04	-.08	-.01
36. Job-Change Negot.	3.44	1.43	.02	.15	.19	.03	.00	.00	.08	.12
37. Voice	4.72	1.00	.25*	-.07	.25*	-.02	.14	.15	.20*	.27**
38. Taking Charge	4.61	1.08	.15	.05	.23*	-.01	.09	.14	.19	.15
39. Task Mastery	5.28	0.94	.15	.08	.21*	.21*	.31**	.24*	-.07	.11
40. Role Clarity	5.38	1.01	.15	.07	.14	.27**	.26**	.22*	-.01	.01
41. Social Integration	0.00	0.71	.07	-.02	.07	.20*	.20*	.17	-.10	.09
42. P-O Fit	5.54	1.06	.22*	.13	.13	.63**	.31**	.27**	-.02	.16
43. PG Fit	5.07	1.24	.19*	.08	-.03	.29**	.31**	.20*	.04	.18
44. P-J Fit	6.08	0.84	.26**	-.02	.06	.32**	.52**	.28**	.09	.10
45. Job Satisfaction	6.05	1.11	.16	.01	.04	.31**	.43**	.22*	-.07	.07
46. Org. Commit	4.90	1.33	.25*	.15	.23*	.52**	.33**	.34**	-.05	.11
47. Intent to Remain	5.77	1.56	.20*	.15	.01	.43**	.36**	.31**	-.06	.13

Note. N ranges from 82 to 187. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Reliabilities are on the diagonal.

Correlations (cont.)

Variables	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Age										
2. Proactive Pers.										
3. Desire Control										
4. Early P-O fit										
5. Early P-J fit										
6. Time Employed										
7. Time in Industry										
8. Transition Exp.										
9. Physical Separation	--									
10. Role Novelty	-.07	*.82*								
11. Role Ambiguity	-.07	-.21*	*.85*							
12. Role Conflict	-.02	-.10	.46**	*.84*						
13. Role Overload	.19	-.04	.40**	.61**	*.75*					
14. Job Autonomy	.02	.17	-.23*	-.24*	.00	*.86*				
15. Emp_Meaning	.05	.24*	-.31**	-.20*	.05	.52**	*.95*			
16. Emp_Competence	-.09	.14	-.44**	-.25**	-.33**	.09	.22*	*.73*		
17. Emp_Self-Det.	-.10	.14	-.07	-.09	.09	.74**	.34**	.09	*.88*	
18. Emp_Impact	-.32**	.15	-.30**	.03	-.13	.23*	.30**	.31**	.29**	*.92*
19. Emp_total	-.22*	.24*	-.41**	-.16	-.12	.56**	.67**	.55**	.62**	.80**
20. POS	-.14	.09	-.46**	-.40**	-.30**	.37**	.30**	.30**	.32**	.45**
21. InstSoc_Collective	.50**	.01	-.26**	-.14	.11	.12	.22*	.07	-.05	-.23*
22. InstSoc_Investiture	.09	.15	-.50**	-.48**	-.37**	.34**	.33**	.29**	.19*	.39**
23. InstSoc_Sequential	.33**	.00	-.47**	-.40**	-.23*	.03	.18	.22*	-.14	-.02
24. InstSoc_Serial	.20	.04	-.58**	-.39**	-.30**	.08	.14	.29**	-.09	.17
25. InstSoc_Fixed	.18	.12	-.53**	-.38**	-.24*	.19*	.23*	.22*	.03	.12
26. InstSoc _Total	.35**	.08	-.59**	-.43**	-.23*	.17	.29**	.24*	-.06	.04
27. Positive Framing	.01	.04	-.27**	-.15	-.24*	-.01	.10	.29**	-.02	.22*
28. Feedback Seeking	-.10	-.05	-.14	-.02	-.03	-.22*	-.03	.25*	-.07	.22*
29. Info. Seeking	.17	-.11	-.24*	.12	-.06	-.06	.05	.18	-.03	.21*
30. General Socializing	.05	.08	-.06	.01	.13	.06	.13	.10	.13	.06
31. Build – Boss	-.04	.06	-.30**	-.07	-.16	.06	.19	.27**	.11	.34**
32. Networking	.06	-.07	-.08	.06	-.03	-.07	-.04	.07	-.08	.16
33. Mentor Initiating	.05	-.16	.00	.29**	.17	-.11	.05	.00	-.05	.19
34. Self-management	.05	.15	-.40**	-.17	-.17	.28**	.28**	.40**	.28**	.28**
35. Feedback Monitor.	.20	-.11	-.01	-.01	.03	-.10	-.04	.03	-.07	-.07
36. Job-Change Negot.	-.01	-.10	.04	.22*	.07	-.30**	-.22*	-.09	-.15	.01
37. Voice	-.01	.04	-.13	.14	.00	.09	.13	.25*	.21*	.41**
38. Taking Charge	.02	.03	-.22*	.17	.00	.04	.02	.29**	.20*	.44**
39. Task Mastery	-.11	-.05	-.31**	-.10	-.17	.09	.18	.72**	.05	.20
40. Role Clarity	-.06	.13	-.62**	-.13	-.19	.28**	.34**	.52**	.19	.37**
41. Social Integration	.05	.22*	-.26*	-.15	-.07	.17	.26*	.29**	.02	.24*
42. P-O Fit	.07	.01	-.19	-.11	-.04	.10	.42**	.17	.07	.35**
43. PG Fit	.00	-.02	-.16	-.13	.02	.10	.24*	.08	.18	.12
44. P-J Fit	.09	.23*	-.35**	-.18	-.06	.29**	.61**	.36**	.13	.37**
45. Job Satisfaction	-.02	.13	-.29**	-.32**	-.08	.39**	.59**	.27*	.28**	.26*
46. Org. Commit	-.09	.01	-.17	-.19	-.15	.07	.29**	.27*	.08	.45**
47. Intent to Remain	-.17	.02	-.26*	-.16	-.11	.14	.42**	.15	-.01	.38**

Note. N ranges from 82 to 187. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Reliabilities are on the diagonal.

Correlations (cont.)

Variables	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
1. Age										
2. Proactive Pers.										
3. Desire Control										
4. Early P-O fit										
5. Early P-J fit										
6. Time Employed										
7. Time in Industry										
8. Transition Exp.										
9. Physical Separation										
10. Role Novelty										
11. Role Ambiguity										
12. Role Conflict										
13. Role Overload										
14. Job Autonomy										
15. Emp_Meaning										
16. Emp_Competence										
17. Emp_Self-Det.										
18. Emp_Impact										
19. Emp_total	*.86*									
20. POS	.53**	*.90*								
21. InstSoc_Collective	-.04	.06	*.74*							
22. InstSoc_Investiture	.46**	.63**	.18	*.81*						
23. InstSoc_Sequential	.06	.23*	.50**	.39**	*.73*					
24. InstSoc_Serial	.19*	.44**	.33**	.67**	.58**	*.67*				
25. InstSoc_Fixed	.21*	.32**	.27**	.49**	.73**	.58**	*.72*			
26. InstSoc _Total	.17	.40**	.65**	.64**	.85**	.75**	.80**	*.85*		
27. Positive Framing	.22*	.35**	-.01	.26**	.15	.22*	.13	.19	*.67*	
28. Feedback Seeking	.15	.28**	.00	.18	.19*	.20*	.15	.17	.25*	*.92*
29. Info. Seeking	.17	.30**	.12	.19	.16	.30**	.20*	.28**	.44**	.35**
30. General Socializing	.14	.09	.19	.09	.15	.22*	.08	.18	.24*	.22*
31. Build – Boss	.35**	.43**	.07	.37**	.21*	.31**	.24*	.29**	.38**	.58**
32. Networking	.05	.11	.16	.10	.22*	.24*	.00	.20*	.21*	.26**
33. Mentor Initiating	.09	.12	.12	.06	.11	.13	.03	.14	.19	.47**
34. Self-management	.45**	.33**	.07	.20*	.15	.22*	.15	.20*	.38**	.33**
35. Feedback Monitor.	-.06	.18	.21*	.08	.23*	.20*	.13	.30**	.36**	.24*
36. Job-Change Negot.	-.14	-.01	.07	-.10	-.03	-.07	-.11	-.02	.15	.44**
37. Voice	.39**	.16	-.03	.14	.00	.13	.00	-.01	.10	.42**
38. Taking Charge	.37**	.18	-.05	.14	-.04	.07	-.04	-.04	.16	.41**
39. Task Mastery	.38**	.09	.06	.10	.16	.13	.06	.08	.15	.08
40. Role Clarity	.52**	.33**	.14	.41**	.32**	.31**	.39**	.41**	.23*	.30**
41. Social Integration	.30**	.37**	.07	.48**	.14	.27*	.25*	.31**	.25*	.22
42. P-O Fit	.40**	.54**	.14	.50**	.34**	.30**	.29**	.41**	.34**	.26*
43. PG Fit	.23*	.35**	.12	.23*	.16	.20	.20	.30**	.03	.11
44. P-J Fit	.54**	.14	.18	.40**	.28**	.22*	.31**	.33**	.02	.11
45. Job Satisfaction	.51**	.46**	.13	.55**	.29**	.27*	.30**	.41**	.20	.26*
46. Org. Commit	.45**	.45**	.06	.54**	.38**	.32**	.36**	.43**	.37**	.35**
47. Intent to Remain	.38**	.41**	-.02	.50**	.40**	.27*	.26*	.35**	.27*	.28*

Note. N ranges from 82 to 187. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Reliabilities are on the diagonal.

Correlations (cont.)

Variables	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38
1. Age										
2. Proactive Pers.										
3. Desire Control										
4. Early P-O fit										
5. Early P-J fit										
6. Time Employed										
7. Time in Industry										
8. Transition Exp.										
9. Physical Separation										
10. Role Novelty										
11. Role Ambiguity										
12. Role Conflict										
13. Role Overload										
14. Job Autonomy										
15. Emp_Meaning										
16. Emp_Competence										
17. Emp_Self-Det.										
18. Emp_Impact										
19. Emp_total										
20. POS										
21. InstSoc_Collective										
22. InstSoc_Investiture										
23. InstSoc_Sequential										
24. InstSoc_Serial										
25. InstSoc_Fixed										
26. InstSoc _Total										
27. Positive Framing										
28. Feedback Seeking										
29. Info. Seeking	*.86*									
30. General Socializing	.29**	*.75*								
31. Build – Boss	.42**	.33**	*.78*							
32. Networking	.41**	.50**	.32**	*.80*						
33. Mentor Initiating	.58**	.42**	.48**	.59**	*.80*					
34. Self-management	.40**	.01	.39**	.20*	.25*	*.79*				
35. Feedback Monitor.	.51**	.21*	.25*	.29**	.35**	.26**	*.91*			
36. Job-Change Negot.	.33**	.17	.30**	.27**	.49**	.07	.20*	*.83*		
37. Voice	.22*	.20*	.25**	.20*	.36**	.35**	.07	.27**	*.83*	
38. Taking Charge	.20*	.15	.29**	.11	.25*	.36**	.02	.30**	.79**	*.92*
39. Task Mastery	.17	-.02	.20	.15	.08	.32**	.02	-.14	.25*	.29**
40. Role Clarity	.19	.05	.36**	.02	.06	.40**	.09	-.05	.27*	.41**
41. Social Integration	.18	.28*	.44**	.09	.17	.02	.20	-.01	.07	.11
42. P-O Fit	.27*	.04	.32**	.10	.27*	.19	.22*	.03	.16	.14
43. PG Fit	.15	.25*	.12	.02	.09	.10	.18	.03	.18	.13
44. P-J Fit	.04	.00	.26*	-.03	.00	.29**	-.09	-.20	.22*	.24*
45. Job Satisfaction	.14	.10	.41**	.09	.16	.33**	.17	-.06	.11	.16
46. Org. Commit	.14	.07	.38**	.13	.18	.14	.13	.00	.14	.11
47. Intent to Remain	.22*	.01	.31**	.20	.29**	.33**	.19	-.06	.09	.13

Note. N ranges from 82 to 187. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Reliabilities are on the diagonal.

Correlations (cont.)

Variables	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
1. Age									
2. Proactive Pers.									
3. Desire Control									
4. Early P-O fit									
5. Early P-J fit									
6. Time Employed									
7. Time in Industry									
8. Transition Exp.									
9. Physical Separation									
10. Role Novelty									
11. Role Ambiguity									
12. Role Conflict									
13. Role Overload									
14. Job Autonomy									
15. Emp_Meaning									
16. Emp_Competence									
17. Emp_Self-Det.									
18. Emp_Impact									
19. Emp_total									
20. POS									
21. InstSoc_Collective									
22. InstSoc_Investiture									
23. InstSoc_Sequential									
24. InstSoc_Serial									
25. InstSoc_Fixed									
26. InstSoc _Total									
27. Positive Framing									
28. Feedback Seeking									
29. Info. Seeking									
30. General Socializing									
31. Build – Boss									
32. Networking									
33. Mentor Initiating									
34. Self-management									
35. Feedback Monitor.									
36. Job-Change Negot.									
37. Voice									
38. Taking Charge									
39. Task Mastery	*.83*								
40. Role Clarity	.56**	*.88*							
41. Social Integration	.28**	.48**	*.76*						
42. P-O Fit	.37**	.49**	.46**	*.95*					
43. PG Fit	.16	.35**	.27**	.53**	*.83*				
44. P-J Fit	.48**	.53**	.26**	.54**	.30**	*.89*			
45. Job Satisfaction	.41**	.49**	.51**	.65**	.47**	.57**	*.94*		
46. Org. Commit	.33**	.46**	.45**	.68**	.39**	.52**	.66**	*.90*	
47. Intent to Remain	.34**	.42**	.39**	.58**	.31**	.45**	.73**	.63**	*.86*

Note. N ranges from 82 to 187. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Reliabilities are on the diagonal.

To measure the amount of time in the workforce, newcomers were asked, "How many years have you been in regular, full-time employment?" Responses to this question ranged from zero to 45.83 years, with an average of 8.36 years and a standard deviation of 9.30. This item was in Survey 1.

To address the second aspect, regarding similarity of the newcomer's work experience to the new job, two sets of items were used. First, subjects were asked a series of questions in Survey 1 about the amount of time they had spent working for organizations of similar type to their current organization. A sample item specific to the university employees is, "Approximately how much time, if any, have you spent working at a college or university prior to your present job?" Those in the other sample groups were asked, "Approximately how much time, if any, have you spent working in the industry in which you are currently working?"

The second set of items used to assess similarity of work experience was an adapted version of an existing four-item measure of role novelty (Nicholson & West, 1988) included in Survey 2. This measure had a reliability of .82, with a mean of 2.58 (four-point scale ranging from 1 to 4, where 1 means the current job is "almost completely different" from previous work and 4 means the current job is "almost identical" to past work) and standard deviation of 0.77. For comparison, Nicholson and West (1988) observed an alpha of .78 for this measure. Kraimer and Wayne (2004) observed a Cronbach's alpha of .71 and Ashforth and Saks (1995) observed an alpha of .80 for a three-item version of the measure. A sample item from this measure includes "How different are the tasks involved in your present job from your previous jobs?"

To assess the third aspect of work experience, newcomers' levels of experience with work transitions, I created a two-item measure. In Survey1, subjects were asked for how many organizations they had worked and how many jobs (defined as sets of work responsibilities, with the clarification that one may hold several jobs at one company or may have held only one job when having worked for several companies) they had held. Number of organizations ranged from zero to 16, with an average of 2.63 and standard deviation of 2.46. Number of jobs ranged from zero to 25, with an average of 3.20 and a standard deviation of 3.60. These two items have a correlation of .35 ($p < .001$). To create a measure of transition experience, I standardized each item and then averaged them.

Physical separation from the workgroup was measured by asking participants about the number of work days they were or were planning to work away from their main office location. The mean was 1.71 days with a standard deviation of 1.40.

Early Fit Perceptions

Survey 1 assessed newcomers' value congruence with the organization using Cable and DeRue's (2002) three-item person – organization (P-O) fit scale. A sample item is "The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values." Mean early P-O fit was 5.68 on a seven-point scale, with a standard deviation of 1.08. This measure demonstrated a high reliability of .92. This scale also has demonstrated high reliability in past research, with coefficient alpha values ranging from .83 to .92 (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005).

Early person – job (P-J) fit was measured with the three-item demands – abilities scale from Cable and DeRue (2002). Mean P-J fit was quite high, at 6.31 on a seven-point scale ($SD = 0.76$). Like early P-O fit, early P-J fit had a high Cronbach's alpha of

.86. In previous research, reliability for this scale has ranged from .71 to .89 (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005). A sample item is "The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills."

To reflect the fact that these perceptions were assessed shortly after organizational entry, the early P-O fit and early P-J fit items were modified to include the phrase "I expect that" before each item. This is similar to the modifications that Carr and colleagues (Carr et al., 2006) made to the fit scales in their study.

Job and Workgroup Predictors

The job and workgroup-related predictors included role stressors (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload), job autonomy, perceived organizational support (POS), psychological empowerment, and institutionalized socialization. All of these measures were in Survey 2.

Role ambiguity was measured with a six-item scale from Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970), which had an average of 2.65 on a seven-point scale (*SD* = 1.00). Cronbach's alpha for this scale was high at .85. In previous studies, reliability for this scale has ranged from .71 to .95 (Fields, 2002; Hang-yue, Foley, & Loi, 2005). A sample role ambiguity item is "I know what my responsibilities are" (reverse scored).

Role conflict was measured with Rizzo and colleagues' (1970) eight-item scale, which had an average of 2.89 on a seven-point scale (*SD* = 1.07). Cronbach's alpha for role conflict was .84. Reliability for this scale has ranged from .71 to .89 in previous research (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Fields, 2002; Hang-yue et al., 2005; Williams, Gavin, & Williams, 1996). A sample item from this scale is "I receive incompatible requests from two or more people."

The role ambiguity and role conflict scales have faced some criticism concerning the wording of the items and, as a result, concerns regarding factorial independence. However, research by House, Schuler, and Levanoni (House, Schuler, & Levanoni, 1983) revealed little support for these criticisms and the scale continues to be widely used in research (e.g., Lankau, Carlson, & Nielson, 2006; Saks & Ashforth, 2000).

Role overload was assessed with Beehr, Walsh, and Taber's (1976) three-item scale. It had a mean of 2.76 on a seven-point scale (SD = 1.25, α = .75), which is similar to the mean of the other role stressors. One of the items is "The performance standard on my job is too high." This measure demonstrated an adequate reliability of .78. Recent reliability measures for this scale have ranged from .70 to .88 in (Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Hang-yue et al., 2005; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006; Marrone, Tesluk, & Carson, 2007).

Job autonomy was measured with a revised version of Hackman and Oldham's (1975, 1976) job design scale by Idaszak and Drasgow (1987). A sample item is "This job gives me considerable opportunity for independence." In this study, the job autonomy scale had a reliability of .86. This scale has been validated by Idaszak and Drasgow and has shown high levels of internal consistency across a variety of studies. For example, a Cronbach's alpha of .86 was observed for this scale in research among customer service employees (Johnson & Spector, 2007); .95 in a sample of US university employees (Liu, Spector, & Shi, 2007); .89 in a sample of US undergraduate and graduate assistants who were not full-time students (Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005). The mean level of job autonomy seemed fairly high, at 5.32 on a seven-point scale. This may be attributable to the fact that a large portion of the sample consisted of highly educated employees, many

of whom were in academic or research faculty jobs. These types of jobs tend to be characterized by their high degrees of autonomy. At 0.85, however, the standard deviation shows that variability on this job characteristic was not as high as expected. For comparison, a recent study using the same autonomy scale had a sample of customer service employees from a variety of organizations, including a public university. That study had a similar mean for job autonomy (M = 5.25), but a much higher standard deviation of 4.72.

POS was measured with the eight-item short form of the Survey of POS (Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999), which was originally developed by (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Average POS was fairly high, at 5.39 on a seven-point scale, with a standard deviation of 0.94. This scale had a high reliability of .90, consistent with that found in previous research. Coefficient alpha values for eight- and nine-item versions of this scale have ranged from .89 to .93 in recent research (Lynch et al., 1999; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). A sample item from this scale is "My organization cares about my opinions." A factor analysis has found POS to be conceptually distinct from leader-member exchange, affective commitment, and intentions to quit (Wayne et al., 1997).

Empowerment was measured with Spreitzer's (1995) psychological empowerment scale, validated by (Kraimer, Seibert, & Liden, 1999; Spreitzer, 1995). This scale has four facets, each of which had three items and demonstrated adequate to high reliability: meaning (α = .95; e.g., "The work I do is very important to me."; M = 5.93, SD = 1.14), competence (α = .73; e.g., "I have mastered the skills necessary for my job."; M = 5.74, SD = 0.90), self-determination (α = .88; e.g., "I can decide on my own

how to go about doing my work." ; M = 5.67, SD = 1.00), and impact (α = .92; e.g., "I have significant influence over what happens in my department." ; M = 3.77, SD = 1.65). Average overall empowerment was 5.28 on a seven-point scale, with a standard deviation of 0.80. Cronbach's alpha for this overall scale was .86. A confirmatory factor analysis confirmed that the model consisting of the separate facets (χ^2 = 51.77, df = 48, RMSEA = .03) was a better fit than the single-factor model (χ^2 = 631.48, df = 54, RMSEA = .32).

Institutionalized socialization was measured with Jones's (1986) scale. Though others have criticized this scale, no other viable alternatives exist (Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). Ashforth and Saks (1996) offered a refinement of the original Jones scale in an attempt to make the investiture items represent Van Maanen and Schein's (1979) definition of investiture as validation of the newcomer's identity rather than investiture as social support. However, these revised items had a reliability of only .66. Therefore, I chose to use the original Jones scale. This scale has six facets, but due to poor reliability of the *formal* facet, I will only use five: collective (α = .74; e.g., "This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences." ; M = 4.00, SD = 1.14), investiture (α = .81; e.g., "I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization." ; M = 5.45, SD = 0.97), sequential (α = .73, e.g., "There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this organization." ; M = 4.39, SD = 1.03), serial (α = .67; e.g., "I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues." ; M = 4.73, SD = 1.06), fixed (α = .72; e.g., "The way in which my progress through this organization will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me." ; M = 4.34, SD = 1.04). Each facet consisted of five items. Taken as facets, this

scale demonstrates adequate reliability. Reliability for this entire scale was more than adequate, at .85. The mean was 4.44 (seven-point scale) and standard deviation was 0.67. A confirmatory factor analysis confirmed that the model consisting of the separate facets (χ^2 = 492.98, *df* = 265, RMSEA = .09) was a better fit than the single-factor model (χ^2 = 668.15, *df* = 275, RMSEA = 0.12).

PSTs

Proactive socialization tactics (PST) were measured using several different instruments. Positive framing, feedback seeking, information seeking, general socializing, building relationships with the boss, networking, negotiating job changes were assessed with Ashford and Black's (1996) proactive socialization measure. The availability of reliability information for this scale is somewhat limited because some researchers have used the scale as a single measure, others use each measure separately, and others group some of the measures into three or four subscales. For instance, networking, general socializing, and building relationships with one's boss are often grouped into a single social behavior measure. A seven-point Likert-type response scale was used for the Ashford and Black measures.

The positive framing scale contained three items. The mean was 5.68 and standard deviation was 1.06. This scale exhibited an adequate reliability of .67 in this study. Coefficient alphas of .72 and .82 were observed for this scale in Ashford and Black's study.

Ashford and Black referred to feedback and information seeking behaviors as sensemaking behaviors. Feedback seeking (*M* = 4.46, *SD* = 1.61) was measured with four items from Ashford and Black's (1996) scale. As in prior research, this scale

demonstrated a high reliability of .92. In prior studies, this scale had coefficient alpha reliabilities of .95 and .92 in Ashford and Black's study and .87 in Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller's (2000) study which used a slightly modified version of the scale. The information seeking scale (M = 5.27, SD = 1.29) had four items and had a strong reliability of .86. This is even higher than the reliability of .76 exhibited in Ashford and Black's study.

Ashford and Black referred to general socializing, build – boss, and networking as social behaviors. General socializing (M = 4.64, SD = 1.43) was measured with Ashford and Black's (1996) three-item scale. It had an adequate reliability of .75, which is slightly lower than the reliability levels seen in previous research. However, one item in this scale was modified, consistent with Wanberg and Kammeyer-Mueller (2000). This modification changes Ashford's "attended office parties" item to "tried to socialize and get to know my coworkers" in order to lessen the influence of availability of office parties on scale responses. The original Ashford and Black scale had a reliability of .84 in their study. The coefficient alpha for this scale was .81 in research by Gruman and colleagues' (2006) research.

Building relationships with one's boss (M = 4.67, SD = 1.20) was assessed using three items from Ashford and Black's scale. The Cronbach's alpha of .78 was consistent with that seen in previous studies. These items had a reliability of .76 in Ashford and Black's study and .85 in the research by Gruman and colleagues (2006).

Networking (M = 4.47, SD = 1.38) was assessed using three items from Ashford and Black's scale. In this research these items had a reliability of .80. This scale had a

reliability of .82 in Ashford and Black's study and .89 in the research by Gruman and colleagues (2006).

Job-change negotiating (M = 3.44, SD = 1.43) was assessed using four items from Ashford and Black's (1996) scale. This scale demonstrated an adequate reliability of .83. These items had reliabilities of .80 and .90 in Ashford and Black's studies and .85 in the research by Gruman and associates (2006).

In addition to the feedback seeking items from Ashford and Black's (1996) scale, I am including six items adapted from Morrison's (1993b) feedback monitoring scale. The purpose of these items is to capture feedback seeking behavior that may occur through observation, which is similar to behavioral modeling which is part of Griffin and colleagues' (2000) definition of newcomer socialization behavior. This scale had a mean of 5.30, standard deviation of 1.23, and a high reliability of .91.

Behavioral self-management was measured using items two scales. First, I used six items from Manz's (1983) 18-item scale. The full scale has been used by Saks and Ashforth (1996). This scale captures self-reports of six self-management strategies: self-observation, cueing strategies, self-goal-setting, self-reward, self-punishment, rehearsal. Additionally, I included Gerhardt, Rode, and Peterson's (2007) four-item scale. This scale was developed based on Frayne's (1991) conceptualization of self-management and has shown a reliability of .74 research in which it was introduced. However, due to less than ideal reliability that could be improved, I omitted items five and six from the Manz scale from the final self-management measure. The resulting self-management scale had a reliability of .79, mean of 5.36 on a seven-point scale, and a standard deviation of 0.75.

Initiation of mentoring relationships (M = 4.17, SD = 1.39) was assessed with four items written by Turban and Dougherty (1994). This instrument addressed the degree to which one had made efforts to find a mentor or has sought the guidance of someone at a higher level in the organization. The reliability of this scale in this study, .80, was similar to its reliability of .82 in Turban and Dougherty's (1994) study. A sample item asked subjects to rate the extent to which they have "sought to become acquainted with higher-level managers." A seven-point response scale was used.

Voice was measured with a six-item scale by Van Dyne and LePine (1998). It had a mean of 4.72, using a seven-point Likert-type response scale, and a standard deviation of 1.00. This scale demonstrated high level of reliability at .83. In Van Dyne and LePine's study its Cronbach alpha was .82. A sample item from this scale is, "I speak up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures."

Taking charge (M = 4.61, SD = 1.08) was measured with a ten-item scale from Morrison and Phelps (1999). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .92, similar to that of .93 observed for this scale by Morrison and Phelps. A sample item is, "I often try to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department." Taking charge has been found to be empirically distinct from in-role behavior, civic virtue, and altruism (Morrison & Phelps, 1999).

Proximal and Distal Socialization Outcomes

Two sets of outcomes were measured in Survey 3. The first are those generally considered to be proximal measures of newcomer adjustment: task mastery, role clarity, social integration, and values congruence (Feldman, 1976, 1981; Louis, 1980). The

second are more distal outcomes of adjustment, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to remain in the organization.

Task mastery ($M = 5.28$, $SD = 0.94$) was measured with a four-item scale by Morrison (1993a) plus three items from Chao and colleagues (1994). This measure demonstrated high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .83. Recent research found reliability values of .76 and .84 for this combined scale (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Morrison, 2002b). One of the items is "I am confident about the adequacy of my job skills and abilities."

Role clarity was measured with the same Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) measure that was used to assess role ambiguity in Survey 2. These items were reverse scored to create a measure of role clarity. In Survey 3, role clarity demonstrated an adequate reliability of .88. It had a mean of 5.38 on a seven-point scale and a standard deviation of 1.01.

Social integration was measured with a five-item scale used by Morrison (1993a) which contains a three-item scale by Price & Mueller (1986) plus two additional items created by Morrison (1993a). Due to the fact that the items in this scale had different response scales, the items had to be standardized before creating the scale. Therefore, the scale has a mean of zero. The standard deviation was 0.71. This scale demonstrated an adequate reliability of .76 in this study. For comparison, a recent study measured a Cronbach's alpha for this scale as .76 (Gruman et al., 2006). A sample item from this measure was, "My co-workers seem to accept me as one of them."

Values congruence was assessed with the same measure of P-O fit used to measure early P-O fit in Survey 1, without the modifications that were necessary for the

early fit measure. The reliability (α = .95), mean (5.54) and standard deviation (1.06) all were similar to those of the early P-O fit measure. As discussed earlier in this paper, the socialization literature is beginning to recognize the integral role that workgroups may have on newcomer socialization. Therefore, I chose to include person-group (P-G) fit as an additional measure of values congruence. P-G fit (M = 5.07, SD = 1.24, α = .83) was measured using Cable and DeRue's (2002) three-item P-O fit scale, modified to refer to the workgroup. A sample item is "The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my workgroup values." Although not considered to be a measure of values congruence, it is common to include a measure of P-J fit as a socialization outcome as well. P-J fit (demands – abilities fit) was measured with the same scale used to measure early P-J fit in Survey 1. P-J fit in Survey 3 had a mean of 6.08, standard deviation of 0.84, and a high reliability of .89.

Job satisfaction was measured with a three-item measure of global job satisfaction from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). Using a seven-point response scale, job satisfaction had a mean of 6.05, standard deviation of 1.11, and a very high Cronbach's alpha of .94. In previous research, this scale has demonstrated adequate internal consistency, with coefficient alpha values ranging from .67 to .95 in previous research (Fields, 2002).

Organizational commitment was assessed with a six-item affective commitment scale by Meyer and Allen (1997). This scale measures subjects' "attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990a, p. 1). Organizational commitment had a mean of 4.90 and a standard deviation of 1.33. This scale demonstrated a high internal consistency, with a reliability of .90 in this study.

Previous research shows adequate to strong reliability for this scale, demonstrated by coefficient alpha values ranging from .77 to .88 in recent studies (Fields, 2002).

Intent to remain in the organization was measured with a reverse-scored, three-item scale, with sample item "I often think about quitting" (Cammann et al., 1979). This scale had a high internal consistency, represented by a coefficient alpha of .86. The mean was 5.77 and standard deviation was 1.56.

Control Variables and Biographical Data

Since the purpose of this research is to further understand non-dispositional influences on PSTs, it was necessary to control for the major dispositional variables that have been found to predict PSTs. This allows us to understand the unique predictive ability of the antecedents proposed in this research over and above the predictive ability of personality. Proactive personality was the first control variable. It was measured with a four-item version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) original 17-item measure. This measure (M = 5.15, SD = 1.05) demonstrated adequate reliability at .81. A Cronbach's alpha of .87 has been observed for this measure in previous research (Parker et al., 2006). Desire for control was the second control variable. Ashford and Black (1996) found that desire for control predicted the PST forms of positive framing, information seeking, networking, general socializing, negotiation of job changes. Desire for control (M = 4.67, SD = 1.24) was measured with the six highest loading items from Greenberger's (1981) desire for personal control scale. This scale had high internal consistency, as demonstrated by a coefficient alpha of .92.

CHAPTER 8: HYPOTHESIS TESTING AND RESULTS

Hypotheses 1 through 14 propose simple relationships between pairs of variables included in this research. These hypotheses were tested with hierarchical regression analyses, using proactive personality and desire for control as control variables. A 95% confidence level is used in these analyses. However, given the exploratory nature of this research area, the data tables also have an indication for relationships with *p*-values less than .10. These relationships will not be considered to be significant in this research, but they may offer insight regarding phenomena related to proactive socialization. Also, given that several of the hypotheses require multiple analyses, I have made use of the Bonferroni adjustment where noted. The Bonferroni adjustment involves dividing the *p*-value required for significance by the number of analyses involved in a particular hypothesis test in order to maintain the integrity of the 95% confidence interval.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that age would be positively related to positive framing. This hypothesis is not supported. As Table 2 shows, age did not significantly predict positive framing. Hypothesis 2, which proposed that age would be negatively related to relationship building behaviors, also was not supported (see Table 2). Age was not significantly related to general socializing, build – boss, or networking when controlling for personality. Given that prior research on age has shown some curvilinear effects (e.g., Warr, 1998), I did test for curvilleanear effects of age on the PSTs in Hypothesis 1 and 2. After controlling for personality and linear effects of age, the curvilinear term was not significant at the 95% confidence level.

Table 2. Regressions of Positive Framing and Relationship – Building Behavior on Age

	Positive framing	General socializing	Build – boss	Networking
	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a
Step 1:				
Proactive personality	.05	.04	.21*	.13
Desire for control	.06	-.11	.11	.02
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.07*	.03
Step 2:				
Age	.15	.06	.08	.03
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.00
Final R	.18	.12	.27	.14
Final R^2	.03	.02	.07	.02
F ratio	1.13	.51	$2.60^{\dagger}$	0.68

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 3 stated that the similarity of newcomers' work experience to the focal job would be positively related to positive framing. Neither role novelty nor the amount of time worked in the same industry was related to positive framing, providing no support for Hypothesis 3 (see Table 3).

Hypothesis 4 proposed that transition experience would be positively related to positive framing. Hypothesis 4 was supported. As Table 4 shows, number of transition experiences (measured at Time 1) did positively predict positive framing (measured at Time 2) after controlling for personality.

Table 3. Positive Framing Regressed on Role Novelty and Time Worked in Same Industry

	Positive framing β[a]
Step 1:	
Proactive personality	.07
Desire for control	.08
ΔR^2	.01
Step 2:	
Role novelty	.03
Time in same industry	.05
ΔR^2	.00
Final R	.13
Final R^2	.02
F ratio	0.42

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 4. Positive Framing Regressed on Transition Experience

	Positive framing β[a]
Step 1:	
Proactive personality	.06
Desire for control	.06
ΔR^2	.02
Step 2:	
Number of transition experiences	.22*
ΔR^2	.05*
Final R	.25
Final R^2	.06
F ratio	2.18†

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

In Hypothesis 5, I proposed that the similarity of newcomers' work experience to the focal job would be negatively related to self-directed PSTs: Hypothesis 5 was not

supported. Support for this hypothesis would be indicated by a positive relationship between role novelty and the self-directed PSTs (other than positive framing) or a negative relationship between the amount of time the newcomer has worked in the same industry and the self-directed PSTs. Neither role novelty nor industry work experience was significantly related to any of the PSTs of interest (see Table 5).

Hypothesis 6, which proposed that the similarity of newcomers' work experience to the focal job would be positively related to environment-directed PSTs, was not supported. A negative relationship between role novelty and the PSTs of interest or a positive relationship between industry work experience and the PSTs of interest would have indicated support for this hypothesis. The work experience predictors, taken individually or together, did not significantly predict job-change negotiating, voice, or taking charge (see Table 6). It is worth noting, however, that time worked in the same industry as the focal job was in the same direction as hypothesized for all three predictors, and was significant at a 90% confidence level for the outcomes of voice and taking charge.

It was proposed in Hypothesis 7 that role overload, measured at T2, would be negatively related to newcomer PSTs. This hypothesis was not supported. As Table 7 shows, role overload was significant only as a predictor of positive framing. However, given that 12 PSTs were regressed on role overload in order to test this hypothesis, the *p*-value for any individual relationship would have to be below .0042 (.05/12 = .0042) with the Bonferroni adjustment in order to be considered significant support for this hypothesis. Role overload was not a significant predictor of positive framing using this threshold.

Table 5. Self-Directed PSTs Regressed on Similarity of Newcomer Work Experience to the Focal Job

	Feedback seeking	Information seeking	General socializing	Build – boss	Net-working	Mentor initiating	Self manage-ment	Feedback monitoring
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:								
Proactive personality	.14	.12	.05	.22*	.14	.23*	.17†	-.02
Desire for control	.18†	.25*	-.10	.13	.03	.19†	.06	-.04
ΔR^2	.06*	.08*	.01	.07*	.02	.10**	.03	.00
Step 2:								
Role novelty	-.00	-.04	.07	.09	-.05	-.10	.11	-.14
Time in same industry	.05	-.05	-.02	-.04	-.17	-.02	-.07	-.06
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.01	.01	.03	.01	.01	.03
Final R	.25	.29	.13	.27	.23	.34	.21	.16
Final R^2	.06	.09	.02	.08	.05	.11	.04	.03
F ratio	1.65	2.33†	0.42	2.00	1.36	3.13*	1.10	0.68

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 6. Environment-Directed PSTs Regressed on Similarity of Newcomer Work Experience to the Focal Job

	Job – change negotiating	Voice	Taking charge
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:			
Proactive personality	.08	-.14	-.02
Desire for control	.17†	.25*	.22*
ΔR^2	.04	.08*	.05†
Step 2:			
Role novelty	-.07	.01	.02
Time in same industry	.08	.18†	.17†
ΔR^2	.01	.03	.03
Final R	.23	.33	.29
Final R^2	.05	.11	.08
F ratio	1.38	2.99*	2.22†

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 7. Regressions of PSTs on Role Overload

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.09	.15	.12	.03	.23*	.14	.22*	.18†	-.02	.08	-.12	-.01
Desire for control	.07	.18†	.24*	-.10	.11	.02	.20*	.04	-.04	.18†	.26**	.23*
ΔR^2	.01	.06*	.08*	.01	.07*	.02	.10**	.03	.00	.04	.08*	.05†
Step 2:												
Role overload	-.24*	-.06	-.10	.13	-.18†	-.04	.14	-.18†	.02	.05	.01	-.02
ΔR^2	.06*	.00	.01	.02	.03†	.00	.02	.03†	.00	.00	.00	.00
Final R	.27	.25	.30	.17	.32	.14	.35	.25	.05	.22	.27	.23
Final R^2	.07	.07	.09	.03	.10	.02	.12	.06	.00	.05	.08	.05
F ratio	2.54†	2.28†	3.31*	0.99	3.65*	0.70	4.54**	2.22†	0.08	1.61	2.67†	1.86

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 8 suggested that role ambiguity and role conflict, both measured at T2, would be negatively related to newcomer positive framing. Given that two predictors are involved in this hypothesis, the Bonferroni adjustment requires that we use a *p*-value below .025 (.05/2 = .025) in order to determine significance. This hypothesis was partially supported. Role ambiguity was significantly negatively related to positive framing, even with this lower threshold (see Table 8). However, role conflict was not significantly related to positive framing (see Table 9).

Hypothesis 9 proposed a positive relationship between role ambiguity and newcomer sensemaking behaviors (feedback and information seeking), both measured at T2. Using a Bonferroni-corrected *p*-value of .025 (.05/2 = .025), Table 8 shows that role ambiguity significantly related to information seeking, but not feedback seeking. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 is partially supported.

Table 8. Regressions of Positive Framing and Sensemaking Tactics on Role Ambiguity

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]
Step 1:			
Proactive personality	.05	.13	.10
Desire for control	.09	.19†	.25**
ΔR^2	.01	.06*	.08*
Step 2:			
Role ambiguity	-.27**	-.15	-.26**
ΔR^2	.07**	.02	.07**
Final R	.29	.29	.38
Final R^2	.08	.08	.15
F ratio	3.05*	2.99*	5.68**

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 10 stated that role conflict would be positively related to newcomers' environment-directed PSTs. Role conflict did not predict job – change negotiating, voice, or taking charge after controlling for personality (see Table 9). However, it is worth noting that all three beta-weights had positive signs as hypothesized.

Table 9. Regressions of Positive Framing and Environment-Directed PSTs on Role Conflict

	Positive framing β^a	Job negotiating β^a	Voice β^a	Taking charge β^a
Step 1:				
Proactive personality	.10	.06	-.14	-.04
Desire for control	.11	.15	.24*	.21*
ΔR^2	.01	.04	.08*	.05†
Step 2:				
Role conflict	-.19†	.16	.12	.12
ΔR^2	.04	.03	.01	.01
Final R	.22	.26	.30	.26
Final R^2	.05	.07	.09	.07
F ratio	1.63	2.44†	3.16*	2.33†

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 11, which suggested that newcomers' levels of job autonomy would be positively related to newcomers' performance of environment-directed PSTs, was not supported. As shown in Table 10, job autonomy was unrelated to voice and taking charge, and was negatively related to job – change negotiating.

Table 10. Regressions of Environment-Directed PSTs on Job Autonomy

	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:			
Proactive personality	.05	-.11	-.01
Desire for control	.18[†]	.26**	.23*
ΔR^2	.04	.08*	.05[†]
Step 2:			
Job autonomy	-.29**	.08	.05
ΔR^2	.08**	.01	.00
Final R	.35	.28	.24
Final R^2	.13	.08	.06
F ratio	4.72**	2.90*	1.93

Note. $N = 103$. [†] $p < .10$. [*] $p < .05$. [**] $p < .01$. [***] $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 12, which proposed that workgroup climate for support would be positively related to newcomer positive framing, was partially supported. Newcomers' POS was positively related to positive framing after controlling for personality (see Table 11). However, this is considered to be only partial support for this hypothesis because I was unable to measure support climate using coworker data as originally proposed.[1]

[1] The original design for this research included distributing surveys to coworkers of newcomers in order to assess workgroup climate characteristics, including climate for support and empowerment climate, using a separate data source. However, I was unable to collect coworker data for this study.

Table 11. Positive Framing Regressed on Perceived Organizational Support

	Positive framing β[a]
Step 1:	
Proactive personality	.03
Desire for control	.04
ΔR^2	.01
Step 2:	
POS	.35***
ΔR^2	.12***
Final R	.36
Final R^2	.13
F ratio	4.88**

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 13 also was partially supported. This hypothesis proposed that workgroup empowerment climate would be positively related to newcomer PSTs, as mediated by psychological empowerment. As with Hypohesis 12, this hypothesis cannot be tested fully as it was originally proposed because I was unable to collect data for empowerment climate.[1] There are four dimensions of the empowerment measure, however this research is concerned with the role of empowerment in general, rather than the role of specific facets. Therefore, in this hierarchical regression, after controlling for personality, the empowerment dimensions were entered in Step 2 (see Table 12). The primary interest in this analysis is the change in *R*-squared attributed to empowerment. Given that there are 12 PSTs included in this analysis, I have calculated the Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-value to be .0042 (.05/12 = .0042). The results show that the empowerment dimensions entered in Step 2 account for a significant amount of additional variance in the PSTs of self-management, voice, and taking charge. In regard to all three of these

PSTs, the change in R-squared was significant when the Bonferroni adjustment was taken into account ($p < .0042$).

Hypothesis 14 proposed that institutionalized socialization tactics would be positively related to newcomers' self-directed PSTs, both measured at T2.[2] Similar to empowerment, institutionalized socialization has several dimensions, but the primary interest of this research is to understand the overall contribution of institutionalized socialization to the prediction of PSTs. As Table 13 shows, the additional variance accounted for by institutional tactics was significant using a p-value of .05 or less when predicting information seeking, build – boss, and networking. However, using the Bonferroni adjustment ($p = .0042$), institutional tactics did not significantly predict any of the self-directed PSTs after controlling for personality. In fact, for the PSTs of networking, the institutional tactics had conflicting influences. Sequential was positively related, but fixed negatively related, to networking. Therefore, Hypothesis 14 is unsupported.

Hypothesis 15, which proposed that institutionalized socialization tactics would be negatively related to newcomers' environment-directed PSTs, also was not supported (see Table 13).[2] Institutionalized socialization did not account for a significant amount of variance in job – change negotiating, voice, or taking charge after controlling for personality.

[2] Hypotheses 14 and 15 proposed that institutionalized socialization would relate to outcomes as mediated by role orientation. However, in the process of reducing the size of Survey 2, the longest survey, I eliminated the role orientation items. Therefore, mediation will not be tested.

Table 12. Regressions of PSTs on the Dimensions of Empowerment

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.04	.11	.10	.04	.18†	.12	.23*	.12	-.02	.09	-.16†	-.06
Desire for control	.02	.13	.21*	-.13	.03	-.03	.16	-.03	-.03	.18†	.14	.09
ΔR^2	.01	.06*	.08*	.01	.07*	.02	.10**	.03	.00	.04	.08*	.05†
Step 2:												
Meaning	.04	-.07	.04	.07	.09	-.08	.07	.13	-.02	-.18†	-.02	-.16†
Competence	.24*	.22*	.13	.07	.15	.02	-.08	.29**	.05	-.08	.13	.20*
Self-determination	-.11	-.12	-.10	.09	-.02	-.14	-.13	.19†	-.06	-.11	.10	.12
Impact	.16	.16	.12	.03	.24*	.21†	.16	.13	-.04	.06	.33**	.38***
ΔR^2	.10*	.09†	.04	.03	.12*	.05	.03	.23***	.01	.06	.17***	.22***
Final R	.34	.39	.36	.20	.43	.26	.37	.51	.10	.33	.49	.52
Final R^2	.11	.15	.13	.04	.18	.07	.14	.26	.01	.11	.24	.27
F ratio	2.03†	2.78*	2.30*	0.70	3.61**	1.14	2.49*	5.65***	0.16	1.89†	5.05***	5.88***

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 13. Regressions of the Self-Directed PSTs on the Dimensions of Institutionalized Socialization

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.06	.13	.11	.04	.21*	.12	.23*	.16	-.02	.09	-.13	-.02
Desire for control	.07	.21*	.29**	-.07	.12	.07	.23*	.05	.01	.21*	.25*	.20†
ΔR^2	.01	.06*	.08*	.01	.07*	.02	.10**	.03	.00	.04	.08*	.05†
Step 2:												
Collective	-.13	-.13	.08	.12	-.03	-.00	.09	-.00	.11	.13	-.05	-.04
Investiture	.20	.04	-.12	-.07	.25†	-.05	-.08	.09	-.08	-.13	.06	.15
Sequential	.15	.25	-.09	.01	.05	.40*	.12	-.05	.15	.06	-.02	-.04
Serial	.10	.13	.38**	.27†	.09	.28†	.18	.17	.16	.02	.20	.11
Fixed	-.10	-.07	.11	-.09	.06	-.43**	-.14	.06	-.07	-.13	-.10	-.13
ΔR^2	.09	.08	.13*	.07	.14**	.15**	.05	.06	.07	.04	.04	.03
Final R	.31	.37	.46	.28	.46	.41	.39	.30	.27	.29	.33	.30
Final R^2	.10	.14	.21	.08	.21	.17	.15	.09	.07	.09	.11	.09
F ratio	1.48	2.14*	3.55**	1.15	3.58**	2.75*	2.43*	1.35	1.08	1.26	1.68	1.29

Note. $N = 103$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 16 proposed that newcomers' self-directed PSTs would be positively related to newcomer adjustment outcomes. This hypothesis was partially supported. Given that this hypothesis concerned nine predictors and nine outcomes, the Bonferroni-corrected p-value to determine significance is .00062 (.05/81 = .0062). The tables shown below (Table 14 through Table 22) show the results of the regressions of the adjustment outcomes on each of the self-directed PSTs. Each tactic is positively related to at least one of the outcomes before implementing the Bonferroni correction. Some tactics, such as feedback seeking and build – boss, predicted several of the outcomes. However, using the adjusted *p*-value, only three relationships remain significant: the effect of build – boss on social integration, the effect of build – boss on job satisfaction, and the effect of self-management on role clarity.

Table 14. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Positive Framing

	Task mas-tery β[a]	Role clar-ity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. com mit. β[a]	Int. to re-main β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	.00	-.09	.08	.03	-.07	.01	.06	.11
Desire for control	.13	.03	-.04	.06	-.08	.04	-.09	.13	-.19†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Positive framing	.13	.23*	.26*	.33**	.04	.02	.21†	.35**	.30**
ΔR^2	.02	.05*	.07*	.11**	.00	.00	.04†	.12**	.09**
Final R	.20	.23	.27	.36	.09	.07	.22	.40	.35
Final R^2	.04	.05	.07	.13	.01	.01	.05	.16	.12
F ratio	1.02	1.44	2.00	3.77*	0.21	0.14	1.26	4.90**	3.52*

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 15. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Seeking

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	-.03	-.10	.07	.02	-.09	-.02	.04	.09
Desire for control	.13	-.04	-.08	.03	-.11	.00	-.15	.09	-.24*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Feedback seeking	.08	.34**	.28*	.24*	.13	.15	.33**	.31**	.31**
ΔR^2	.01	.11**	.07*	.05*	.01	.02	.10**	.09**	.09**
Final R	.16	.33	.28	.27	.14	.16	.32	.36	.34
Final R^2	.03	.11	.08	.07	.02	.03	.10	.13	.12
F ratio	0.70	3.14*	2.18†	2.06	0.54	0.67	2.96*	3.70*	3.45*

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 16. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Information Seeking

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	.00	-.09	.08	.02	-.07	.00	.08	.11
Desire for control	.08	-.03	-.10	.00	-.14	.01	-.15	.14	-.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Information seeking	.19	.23†	.26*	.26*	.19	.08	.22†	.07	.26*
ΔR^2	.03	.05†	.06*	.06*	.03	.01	.04†	.00	.06*
Final R	.23	.22	.25	.28	.19	.10	.22	.21	.31
Final R^2	.05	.05	.06	.08	.04	.01	.05	.04	.09
F ratio	1.38	1.34	1.76	2.26†	0.97	0.26	1.29	1.19	2.63†

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 17. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on General Socializing

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.00	.01	-.08	.10	.02	-.07	.01	.08	.13
Desire for control	.15	.05	.01	.10	-.06	.04	-.06	.18	-.16
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
General socializing	-.03	.05	.28*	.05	.25*	.00	.09	.08	.01
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.08*	.00	.06*	.00	.01	.01	.00
Final R	.15	.07	.29	.16	.26	.07	.11	.22	.18
Final R^2	.02	.01	.09	.03	.07	.01	.01	.05	.03
F ratio	0.58	0.14	2.37†	0.65	1.84	0.13	0.34	1.27	0.90

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 18. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Build – Boss

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.03	-.04	-.14	.06	.02	-.11	-.05	.03	.08
Desire for control	.11	-.03	-.11	.03	-.11	-.02	-.17	.09	-.24*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Build – boss	.17	.37**	.49***	.31**	.14	.28*	.46***	.36**	.37**
ΔR^2	.03	.13**	.22***	.09**	.02	.07*	.19***	.12**	.13**
Final R	.22	.36	.48	.33	.16	.28	.45	.40	.40
Final R^2	.05	.13	.23	.11	.03	.08	.20	.16	.16
F ratio	1.30	3.87*	7.46**	3.13*	0.67	2.20†	6.33*	4.81*	4.85*

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 19. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Networking

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	.02	-.08	.09	.03	-.06	.01	.07	.10
Desire for control	.13	.05	-.02	.08	-.09	.05	-.08	.15	-.20†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Networking	.12	.00	.09	.08	.04	-.05	.10	.10	.25*
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01	.01	.06*
Final R	.19	.06	.11	.17	.09	.09	.12	.23	.31
Final R^2	.04	.00	.01	.03	.01	.01	.01	.05	.09
F ratio	0.93	0.08	0.32	0.76	0.21	0.19	0.35	1.37	2.64†

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 20. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Mentor Initiating

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.02	-.00	-.12	.05	.02	-.08	-.03-	.06	.06
Desire for control	.13	.03	-.07	.03	-.10	.03	.13	.14	-.24*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Mentor initiating	.09	.08	.26*	.25*	.10	.04	.23†	.11	.31**
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.06*	.06*	.01	.00	.05†	.01	.08**
Final R	.17	.10	.25	.28	.12	.08	.23	.23	.34
Final R^2	.03	.01	.06	.08	.01	.01	.05	.05	.12
F ratio	0.75	0.23	1.75	2.17†	0.37	0.17	1.42	1.39	3.39*

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 21. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Self-Management

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.05	-.06	-.07	.07	.02	-.12	-.04	.06	.07
Desire for control	.13	.03	-.01	.08	-.08	.02	-.09	.16	-.18†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Self-management	.32**	.41***	.03	.17	.11	.31**	.35**	.12	.35**
ΔR^2	.10**	.16***	.00	.03	.01	.09**	.12**	.01	.12**
Final R	.35	.41	.08	.23	.13	.31	.35	.23	.38
Final R^2	.12	.17	.01	.05	.02	.10	.12	.05	.15
F ratio	3.53*	5.20**	0.16	1.39	0.45	2.78*	3.60*	1.47	4.47**

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 22. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Monitoring

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	.00	-.07	.09	.03	-.08	.01	.08	.11
Desire for control	.15	.05	-.01	.10	-.08	.04	-.07	.17	-.16
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Feedback monitoring	.04	.10	.22†	.22*	.18	-.08	.18	.12	.17
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.05†	.05*	.03	.01	.03	.01	.03
Final R	.15	.11	.23	.26	.19	.11	.19	.23	.24
Final R^2	.02	.01	.05	.07	.04	.01	.04	.05	.06
F ratio	0.61	0.32	1.40	1.95	1.02	0.33	1.00	1.49	1.65

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 17 stated that newcomer environment-directed PSTs would be positively related to adjustment outcomes, but that these relationships would be weaker than those proposed in Hypothesis 16. The first step of testing this hypothesis was to regress the adjustment outcomes on each of the environment-directed PSTs. The Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-value for this hypothesis test is .00185 (.05/27 = .00185). Table 23 shows that job – change negotiating did not significantly predict any of the adjustment outcomes over and above personality. Table 24 shows that voice predicted task mastery, role clarity, and P-J fit before taking into account the Bonferroni correction. However, none of these relationships remained significant after implementing the Bonferroni correction. Table 25 shows that taking charge positively predicts task mastery, role clarity, and P-J fit before the Bonferroni adjustment. After the adjustment, only the relationship with role clarity remains significant.

Table 23. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Job – Change Negotiating

	Task mas-tery β[a]	Role clar-ity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. com mit. β[a]	Int. to re-main β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.00	.02	-.07	.10	.03	-.06	.02	.08	.13
Desire for control	.19	.06	-.01	.10	-.09	.09	-.06	.19	-.14
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Job – change negotiating	-.17	-.06	.01	-.01	.04	-.21†	-.03	-.07	-.08
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.00	.00	.00	.04†	.00	.01	.01
Final R	.22	.08	.07	.15	.09	.21	.08	.21	.20
Final R^2	.05	.01	.01	.02	.01	.05	.01	.05	.04
F ratio	1.31	0.16	0.14	0.60	0.21	1.23	0.14	1.21	1.06

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 24. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Voice

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.02	.03	-.06	.11	.05	-.05	.03	.09	.13
Desire for control	.08	-.04	-.03	.05	-.15	-.03	-.11	.14	-.20†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Voice	.24*	.29*	.08	.15	.22†	.23*	.14	.10	.14
ΔR^2	.05*	.08*	.01	.02	.04†	.05*	.02	.01	.02
Final R	.27	.28	.10	.20	.23	.24	.15	.22	.22
Final R^2	.07	.08	.01	.04	.05	.06	.02	.05	.05
F ratio	0.87	2.20†	0.28	1.12	1.38	1.53	0.61	1.35	1.36

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 25. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Taking Charge

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	.00	-.07	.10	.03	-.08	.01	.08	.12
Desire for control	.06	-.08	-.05	.06	-.12	-.04	-.13	.15	-.21†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Taking charge	.30*	.45**	.14	.12	.15	.27*	.21†	.06	.16
ΔR^2	.08*	*	.02	.01	.02	.07*	.04†	.00	.02
		.18** *							
Final R	.32	.43	.15	.19	.17	.27	.21	.21	.24
Final R^2	.10	.18	.02	.04	.03	.07	.04	.04	.06
F ratio	2.96*	5.83* *	0.63	0.93	0.73	2.06	1.17	1.16	1.51

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

In order to determine whether the relationship between self-directed behaviors and outcomes actually was stronger than the relationship between environment-directed behaviors and outcomes, I used hierarchical regression to regressed each socialization outcome first on the control variables, second on the group of self-directed PSTs, and third on the group of environment-directed PSTs. Then I performed the reverse analysis, regressing each outcome first on the control variables, second on the environment-directed PSTs, and third on the self-directed PSTs. Then I compared the incremental proportion of variance accounted for by the variables in Step 3 of each analysis. Given that the change in *R*-squared in each step is the statistic of interest, I have left the beta-weights out of this table. Table 26 and Table 27 show that, in support of Hypothesis 17, the self-directed PSTs indeed were stronger predictors of the adjustment outcomes than the environment-directed PSTs. When environment-directed PSTs were entered into the equation after controlling for self-directed PSTs (see Table 26), the environment-directed PSTs accounted for a significant amount of incremental variance only in regard to the outcomes of task mastery and role clarity. The average change in *R*-squared for environment –directed PST in these analyses was 0.06. However, when controlling for environment-directed PSTs (see Table 27), the beta-weights for self-directed PSTs and the outcomes of social integration, P-O fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to remain remained almost identical as they had when not controlling for environment-directed PSTs. The average change in *R*-squared for self –directed PSTs when controlling for environment-directed PSTs was 18.78.

Table 26. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on PSTs (Condensed)

	Task mas-tery β[a]	Role clar-ity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. com mit. β[a]	Int. to re-main β[a]
Step 1:									
Control variables	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Self-directed PSTs	.12	.26*	.28**	.18†	.11	.19†	.24*	.21*	.25*
Step 3:									
Env.-directed PSTs	.10*	.12*	.03	.04	.03	.07	.03	.05	.08†
Final R	.49	.62	.56	.49	.39	.51	.52	.56	.60
Final R^2	.24	.38	.31	.24	.15	.26	.27	.31	.36
F ratio	1.52	2.86*	2.14*	1.51	0.86	1.65†	1.77†	2.09*	2.64*

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 27. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on PSTs (Condensed)

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Control variables	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Env.-directed PSTs	.14**	.23** *	.02	.02	.04	.15**	.05	.02	.04
Step 3:									
Self-directed PSTs	.08	.15†	.29**	.20†	.10	.11	.22*	.25*	.29**
Final R	.49	.62	.56	.49	.39	.51	.52	.56	.60
Final R^2	.24	.38	.31	.24	.15	.26	.27	.31	.36
F ratio	1.52	2.86* *	2.14*	1.51	0.86	1.65†	1.77†	2.09*	2.64* *

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

In Hypothesis 18, it was proposed that work experience, age, job autonomy, support climate, empowerment climate, and institutionalized socialization would be positively related to newcomer adjustment outcomes, and that role stressors would be negatively related to newcomer adjustment outcomes. Taking into account the six sets of predictors and nine outcomes in this hypothesis, I have computed the Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-value for significance to be .00093 (.05/54 = .00093). Table 28 shows that after controlling for personality, work experience variables as a group did not significantly predict any of the adjustment outcomes. Table 29 shows that before the Bonferroni-correction, age significantly predicted P-J fit and organizational commitment. However, these relationships were nonsignificant when taking into account the corrected *p*-value. Table 30 shows that job autonomy significantly predicts role clarity, P-J fit, and job

satisfaction before the Bonferroni adjustment. The relationship with job satisfaction remains significant after the adjustment. Table 31 shows that several POS predicted several outcomes before taking into account the Bonferroni adjustment: role clarity, social integration, P-O fit, P-G fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to remain. After implementing the adjusted p-value, POS still significantly predicted social integration, P-O fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to remain. As shown in Table 32, as a set, the empowerment dimensions predicted all of the adjustment outcomes except for P-G fit. Even after implementing the Bonferroni adjustment, the empowerment dimensions significantly predicted task mastery, role clarity, P-O fit, P-J fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to remain. As shown in Table 33, the institutionalized socialization facets as a set predict all of the adjustment outcomes except for task mastery and P-G fit. Using the Bonferroni-adjusted p-value, institutional tactics significantly predict social integration, P-O fit, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to remain with the organization. Table 34 shows that the role stressors (role ambiguity, role overload, and role conflict) do generally relate negatively to the adjustment outcomes. Some of the beta-weights were positive in direction, but none of the positive beta-weights was significant in the presence of the other role stressors. Role ambiguity was the strongest, most consistent predictor of the adjustment outcomes. As a set, the role stressors predicted task mastery, role clarity, P-J fit, and job satisfaction before accounting for the Bonferroni adjustment. The relationship with role clarity was significant when implementing the corrected *p*-value.

Table 28. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Work Experience

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	-.00	-.02	.07	-.01	-.11	.00	.03	.08
Desire for control	.14	.07	.01	.09	-.10	.04	-.07	.17	-.16
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.00	.03	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Role novelty	-.08	.10	.23†	.01	-.05	.17	.10	-.00	.04
Industry exp.	-.14	-.02	-.15	-.08	.00	-.01	-.12	-.06	-.14
Time employed	.09	.16	.02	.15	.14	.26†	.16	.33*	.26†
No. of transitions	.10	-.12	.05	.05	.08	-.06	.01	-.10	-.01
ΔR^2	.04	.03	.06	.04	.04	.09	.04	.07	.07
Final R	.26	.18	.26	.25	.20	.31	.22	.33	.31
Final R^2	.07	.03	.07	.06	.04	.10	.05	.11	.10
F ratio	0.94	0.44	0.91	0.84	0.57	1.37	0.65	1.59	1.38

Note. $N = 85$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 29. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Age

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.04	.04	-.04	.07	.05	-.07	-.00	.05	.09
Desire for control	.18†	.10	.06	.08	-.09	.03	.01	.18†	-.05
ΔR^2	.05†	.02	.01	.03	.01	.00	.00	.06*	.01
Step 2:									
Age	.11	.14	.09	.19†	.19†	.29**	.17	.21*	.19†
ΔR^2	.01	.02	.01	.03†	.04	.08**	.03	.04*	.03†
Final R	.25	.20	.11	.25	.21	.28	.17	.31	.21
Final R^2	.06	.04	.01	.06	.04	.08	.03	.10	.05
F ratio	2.20†	1.40	.40	2.19†	1.50	2.92*	0.94	3.65*	1.61

Note. $N = 105$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 30. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Job Autonomy

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.02	.03	-.03	.11	.05	-.05	.04	.09	.13
Desire for control	.17	.10	.03	.12	-.06	.09	-.01	.19†	-.13
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.00	.03	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Job autonomy	.12	.30**	.17	.13	.10	.30**	.39***	.11	.15
ΔR^2	.01	.09**	.03	.02	.01	.09**	.15***	.01	.02
Final R	.20	.30	.17	.21	.13	.30	.39	.24	.23
Final R^2	.04	.09	.03	.04	.02	.09	.15	.06	.05
F ratio	1.07	2.69†	0.80	1.22	0.43	2.68†	4.92*	1.59	1.45

Note. $N = 85$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 31. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on POS

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.02	-.04	-.12	.03	-.01	-.10	-.05	.03	.07
Desire for control	.14	.02	-.04	.04	-.12	.03	-.11	.13	-.19†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
POS	.10	.35**	.41***	.53***	.35**	.18	.50***	.43***	.40***
ΔR^2	.01	.12**	.17***	.28***	.12**	.03	.24***	.18***	.16***
Final R	.18	.35	.41	.55	.36	.19	.50	.46	.43
Final R^2	.03	.12	.17	.30	.13	.04	.25	.21	.19
F ratio	0.82	3.61*	5.25**	10.88***	3.86*	0.98	8.46**	7.00**	5.94*

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 32. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Dimensions of Empowerment

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.03	-.04	-.08	.06	.01	-.15†	-.06	.05	.08
Desire for control	.05	-.05	-.07	.06	-.07	.02	-.04	.06	-.26*
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.00	.03	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Meaning	.06	.19†	.19†	.37**	.19	.56***	.52***	.20†	.34**
Competence	.71***	.43***	.23*	.03	.04	.21*	.15	.13	.05
Self-determination	-.04	.03	-.12	-.11	.13	-.09	.11	-.10	-.23*
Impact	-.02	.20†	.19	.24*	.04	.19†	.06	.36**	.42***
ΔR^2	.50***	.36***	.16**	.23***	.08	.48***	.39***	.22***	.33***
Final R	.73	.60	.40	.50	.28	.70	.63	.52	.60
Final R^2	.53	.36	.16	.25	.08	.48	.39	.27	.36
F ratio	14.39***	7.32**	2.50*	4.41*	1.14	12.21***	8.34**	4.75**	7.27**

Note. $N = 85$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 33. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Dimensions of Institutionalized Socialization

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	-.03	-.12	.05	.02	-.13	-.06	.04	.08
Desire for control	.16	.06	-.03	.11	-.08	.06	-.06	.17†	-.16†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Collective	-.02	.08	.10	.05	.09	.17	.10	-.04	-.22*
Investiture	.04	.33*	.59***	.55***	.17	.50**	.72***	.56***	.59***
Sequential	.25	.07	-.12	.28†	-.05	.10	.15	.33*	.56***
Serial	.03	-.11	-.15	-.21	.04	-.31†	-.33*	-.21	-.20
Fixed	-.13	.23	.10	-.08	.10	.13	.00	-.03	-.28*
ΔR^2	.04	.23**	.26***	.29***	.07	.25**	.37***	.34***	.39***
Final R	.25	.48	.52	.56	.27	.50	.61	.62	.65
Final R^2	.06	.23	.27	.31	.08	.25	.37	.38	.42
F ratio	0.71	3.13*	3.89*	4.77**	0.86	3.55*	6.23**	6.45**	7.69**

Note. $N = 82$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 34. Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Role Stressors

	Task mastery β[a]	Role clarity β[a]	Soc. Int. β[a]	P-O fit β[a]	P-G fit β[a]	P-J fit β[a]	Job sat. β[a]	Org. commit. β[a]	Int. to remain β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.01	-.02	-.05	.11	.04	-.09	.03	.11	.13
Desire for control	.14	.03	.04	.15	-.01	.10	.03	.23†	-.15
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.00	.03	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Role ambiguity	-.30*	-.66***	-.25*	-.16	-.15	-.35**	-.21†	-.08	-.22†
Role overload	.02	.14	-.10	-.18	-.18	-.14	-.35*	-.27†	-.08
Role conflict	-.06	-.04	.09	.11	.15	.15	.18	.03	-.05
ΔR^2	.10*	.40***	.07	.05	.05	.14**	.15**	.08†	.08†
Final R	.35	.64	.27	.28	.23	.38	.39	.35	.33
Final R^2	.12	.40	.08	.08	.05	.14	.15	.12	.11
F ratio	2.22†	10.71***	1.29	1.37	0.91	2.65*	2.86*	2.22†	1.97†

Note. $N = 85$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 19 proposed that newcomer PSTs would partially mediate the relationships between the proposed antecedents and adjustment outcomes. The Baron and Kenny (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Judd & Kenny, 1981) causal steps method has been the most common way of testing mediation. However, this method has received criticism for being too conservative and not providing an indicator of the strength of the mediated effect (MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009; MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). Instead, I have chosen to use a boostrapping method of testing mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Benefits of this method include that it provides an estimate of the strength of the effect and that it can detect indirect effects even when the independent variable, *X*, is not correlated with the dependent variable, *Y*. For this hypothesis, I was only concerned with independent variable – mediator relationships that had already been predicted in Hypotheses 1 through 15. I

tested for mediation in relationships in which it had already been found that the independent variable significantly predicted the mediator (without taking into account any Bonferroni corrections) in the hypothesized direction, and that the mediator significantly predicted the adjustment outcome. Using the Bonferroni correction, the *p*-value for any individual mediated relationship shown in Table 35 would have to be less than .00089 (.05/56 = .00089). Although none of the mediated relationships tested met this level of significance, it appears that build – boss, self-management, and taking charge may play a role in translating indirect effects from empowerment to adjustment outcomes.

Table 35. Tests for Indirect Effects of Antecedents on Adjustment Outcomes

Independent variable (*X*)	Mediator (*M*)	Dependent variable (*Y*)	Indirect effect (*Z*)
No. of transitions	Positive framing	Role clarity	1.65†
No. of transitions	Positive framing	Social integration	1.66†
No. of transitions	Positive framing	P-O fit	1.86†
No. of transitions	Positive framing	Org. commit.	1.94†
No. of transitions	Positive framing	Intent to remain	1.66†
Role overload	Positive framing	Role clarity	-1.34
Role overload	Positive framing	Social integration	-1.48
Role overload	Positive framing	P-O fit	-1.69†
Role overload	Positive framing	Org. commit.	-1.70†
Role overload	Positive framing	Intent to remain	-1.52
Role ambiguity	Positive framing	Role clarity	-0.89
Role ambiguity	Positive framing	Social integration	-1.41
Role ambiguity	Positive framing	P-O fit	-1.75

Independent variable (*X*)	Mediator (*M*)	Dependent variable (*Y*)	Indirect effect (*Z*)
Role ambiguity	Positive framing	Org. commit.	-1.82†
Role ambiguity	Positive framing	Intent to remain	-1.50
POS	Positive framing	Role clarity	0.71
POS	Positive framing	Social integration	1.04
POS	Positive framing	P-O fit	1.07
POS	Positive framing	Org. commit.	1.74†
POS	Positive framing	Intent to remain	0.92
Empowerment – competence	Positive framing	Role clarity	1.12
Empowerment – competence	Positive framing	Social integration	1.31
Empowerment – competence	Positive framing	P-O fit	1.56
Empowerment – competence	Positive framing	Org. commit.	1.58
Empowerment – competence	Positive framing	Intent to remain	1.43
Empowerment – competence	Feedback seeking	Role clarity	1.47
Empowerment – competence	Feedback seeking	Social integration	1.20
Empowerment – competence	Feedback seeking	P-O fit	1.52
Empowerment – competence	Feedback seeking	Job satisfaction	1.44
Empowerment – competence	Feedback seeking	Org. commit.	1.71†
Empowerment – competence	Feedback seeking	Intent to remain	1.60
Inst. Soc. – serial	Information seeking	Social integration	0.86
Inst. Soc. – serial	Information seeking	P-O fit	1.51
Inst. Soc. – serial	Information seeking	Intent to remain	1.17
Empowerment – impact	Build – boss	Role clarity	1.94†
Empowerment –	Build – boss	Social integration	2.43*

Independent variable (*X*)	Mediator (*M*)	Dependent variable (*Y*)	Indirect effect (*Z*)
impact			
Empowerment – impact	Build – boss	P-O fit	1.77†
Empowerment – impact	Build – boss	P-J fit	1.26
Empowerment – impact	Build – boss	Job satisfaction	2.30*
Empowerment – impact	Build – boss	Org. commit.	1.99*
Empowerment – impact	Build – boss	Intent to remain	1.61
Inst. Soc. – sequential	Networking	Intent to remain	0.98
Empowerment – competence	Self-management	Task mastery	1.12
Empowerment – competence	Self-management	Role clarity	2.07*
Empowerment – competence	Self-management	P-J fit	1.57
Empowerment – competence	Self-management	Job satisfaction	1.99*
Empowerment – competence	Self-management	Intent to remain	2.12*
Empowerment – impact	Voice	Task mastery	1.55
Empowerment – impact	Voice	Role clarity	1.01
Empowerment – impact	Voice	P-J fit	0.43
Empowerment – competence	Taking charge	Task mastery	0.89
Empowerment – competence	Taking charge	Role clarity	2.07*
Empowerment – competence	Taking charge	P-J fit	1.20
Empowerment – impact	Taking charge	Task mastery	1.97*
Empowerment – impact	Taking charge	Role clarity	2.35*
Empowerment – impact	Taking charge	P-J fit	0.62

Note. $N = 82$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 20[3] proposed that the degree to which newcomers are physically separated from the workgroup would weaken the relationship between contextual antecedents and newcomer PSTs. This hypothesis was not supported. Table 36 through Table 38 show the results of these analyses. After implementing the Bonferroni correction (.05/36 = .0014) for this hypothesis, only one of the moderated relationships is significant. However, it does not conform to the relationship as stated in the hypothesis. **Error! Reference source not found.** shows that time spent away from one's office moderates the relationship between empowerment and feedback seeking, such that when newcomers have low levels of empowerment, physical separation has little impact on newcomer feedback seeking. When newcomers have higher levels of empowerment, they are more likely to seek feedback if they spend more time in the office, and less likely if they spend less time in the office. In other words, empowerment has a positive relationship with feedback seeking for newcomers that spend more time in the office. For those experiencing higher physical separation, empowerment has a negative relationship with feedback seeking.

[3] For the purpose of simplicity, the moderation analyses involving empowerment or institutionalized socialization were tested using the combined version of the respective measures for those constructs.

Table 36. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Empowerment and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	-.08	.11	.11	-.02	.13	.08	.24*	.14	-.02	.02	-.21*	-.17
Desire for control	.03	.19†	.27*	-.09	.10	.03	.24*	-.09	-.05	.26*	.20*	.20*
ΔR^2	.01	.06†	.09*	.01	.04	.00	.11**	.02	.01	.07†	.07*	.05
Step 2:												
Empowerment	.23†	.03	.11	.14	.29*	-.03	-.07	.34**	-.14	-.14	.39***	.51***
Time away from office	.01	-.45**	.09	.06	-.03	-.04	-.17	.01	-.07	-.00	-.06	.22
ΔR^2	.06†	.04	.06†	.02	.09*	.00	.01	.14**	.04	.02	.18***	.21***
Step 3:												
Empowerment x time away from office	-.06	-.53**	-.18	-.01	-.09	-.14	-.35*	-.16	-.36*	.05	-.16	.14
ΔR^2	.00	.12**	.01	.00	.00	.01	.05*	.01	.06*	.00	.01	.01
Final R	.25	.47	.41	.17	.37	.13	.42	.42	.33	.30	.52	.52
Final R^2	.06	.22	.16	.03	.13	.02	.17	.18	.11	.09	.27	.27
F ratio	1.06	4.32**	3.06*	0.46	2.41*	0.27	3.25*	3.39**	1.93†	1.53	5.67***	5.71***

Note. $N = 84$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 37. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on POS and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	-.14	.03	.07	-.04	.08	.02	.21†	.12	-.10	.01	-.23*	-.15
Desire for control	.11	.23*	.30**	-.04	.17	.06	.23*	-.05	-.02	.25*	.25*	.25*
ΔR^2	.01	.05	.09*	.01	.04	.00	.11*	.03	.01	.06†	.07†	.05
Step 2:												
POS	.45***	.30**	.36**	.21†	.49***	.17	.10	.34**	.27*	.03	.23*	.23*
Time away from office	.08	-.07	.23*	.07	.04	.10	.08	.09	.23*	.01	.01	.06
ΔR^2	.18***	.11**	.18***	.04	.22***	.03	.03	.12**	.12**	.00	.05	.04
Step 3:												
POS x time away from office	.09	-.11	-.10	.06	.04	.07	-.17	-.05	-.08	.01	.06	.11
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.44	.41	.52	.22	.51	.19	.40	.39	.37	.25	.35	.31
Final R^2	.19	.17	.27	.05	.26	.04	.16	.15	.14	.06	.12	.10
F ratio	3.60**	3.16*	5.80***	0.75	5.29***	0.56	2.87*	2.75*	2.48*	1.01	2.11†	1.65

Note. $N = 83$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 38. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Institutionalized Socialization and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	-.09	.00	.06	-.02	.10	.03	.17	.13	-.11	.02	-.19†	-.09
Desire for control	.08	.28**	.33**	-.06	.17	.07	.29**	-.04	.02	.25*	.24*	.20†
ΔR^2	.01	.06†	.09*	.01	.04	.00	.11**	.02	.01	.07†	.07*	.05
Step 2:												
Inst. socialization	.29*	.41**	.32**	.10	.38**	.27*	.15	.23†	.32*	-.02	.10	-.04
Time away from office	-.23	-.56**	.13	.14	-.14	-.15	.10	-.30	-.11	.04	-.20	-.02
ΔR^2	.06†	.10*	.13**	.02	.12**	.05	.03	.03	.10*	.00	.01	.00
Step 3:												
Inst. Soc. x time away from office	.17	.41*	-.06	-.16	-.03	.15	-.09	.34†	.25	-.06	.17	.06
ΔR^2	.01	.06*	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.04†	.02	.00	.01	.00
Final R	.27	.46	.47	.18	.41	.25	.38	.30	.37	.26	.30	.23
Final R^2	.07	.21	.22	.03	.16	.06	.15	.09	.13	.07	.09	.05
F ratio	1.20	4.20**	4.38**	0.53	3.07*	1.07	2.64*	1.50	2.40*	1.13	1.51	0.84

Note. $N = 84$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

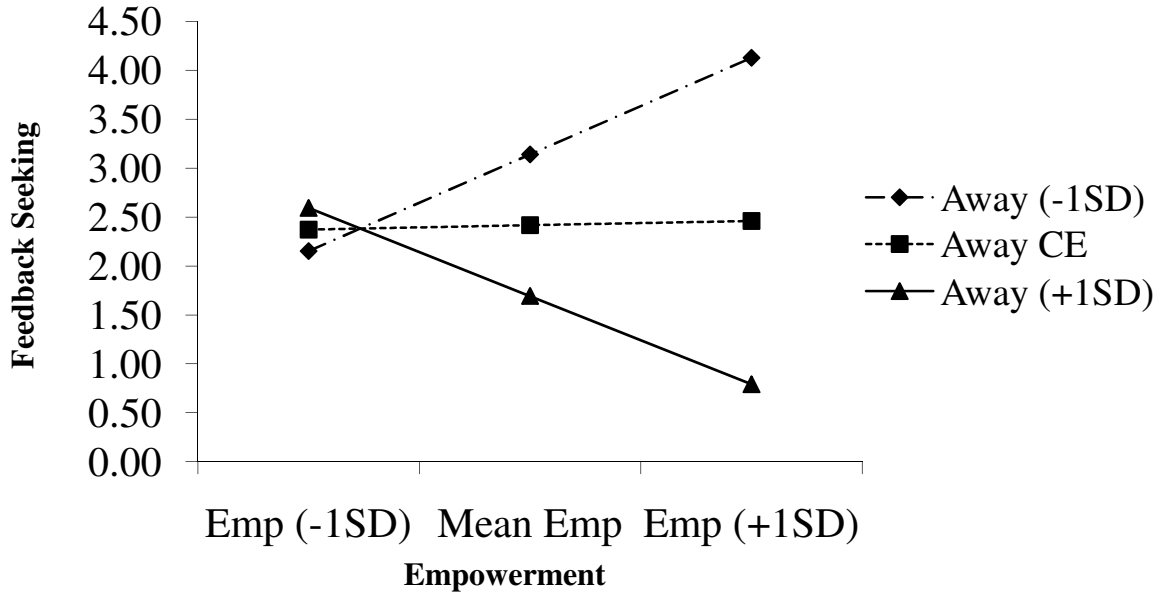

Figure 2. The Moderating Effect of Physical Separation on the Relationship between Empowerment and Feedback Seeking

In Hypothesis 21, it was proposed that physical separation will strengthen the relationship between PSTs and outcomes. Hypothesis 21 was unsupported. Table 39 through Table 50 show that only in one case does working away from the office interact with a PST. Working away from the office influences the relationship between networking and intent to remain with the organization. However, this relationship would not be significant after the Bonferroni correction.

Table 39. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Positive Framing and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.03	-.01	-.09	.15	.10	-.06	.03	.07	.15
Desire for control	.13	-.06	-.09	-.05	-.06	-.02	-.19	.10	-.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07†
Step 2:									
Positive framing	.02	.18	.21†	.37**	.10	.05	.23†	.38**	.41**
Time away from office	-.12	-.05	.11	.12	.02	.13	.07	-.03	-.05
ΔR^2	.01	.05	.07†	.17**	.02	.03	.05	.16**	.16**
Step 3:									
Positive framing x time away from office	-.13	-.11	-.12	-.11	-.16	-.07	.03	-.06	.09
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.01	.01	.02	.00	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.21	.24	.32	.44	.23	.18	.29	.42	.48
Final R^2	.04	.06	.10	.19	.06	.03	.08	.18	.23
F ratio	0.56	0.80	1.43	3.07*	0.74	0.45	1.16	2.75*	3.81**

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 40. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Seeking and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.04	-.06	-.13	.10	.08	-.08	-.03	.02	.10
Desire for control	.15	-.11	-.13	-.09	-.08	-.04	-.27*	.04	-.32**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07†
Step 2:									
Feedback seeking	-.02	.33**	.30*	.28*	.18	.13	.40**	.34**	.35**
Time away from office	.01	.03	.15	.11	.08	.20	.03	-.10	-.20
ΔR^2	.01	.13*	.11*	.08†	.04	.05	.14**	.09*	.10*
Step 3:									
Feedback seeking x time away from office	-.26†	-.15	-.05	.00	-.05	-.14	.07	.14	.25†
ΔR^2	.05†	.02	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	.02	.05†
Final R	.29	.39	.35	.31	.22	.26	.42	.36	.46
Final R^2	.08	.15	.12	.09	.05	.07	.18	.13	.21
F ratio	1.14	2.26†	1.82	1.32	0.62	0.89	2.79*	1.86	3.43**

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 41. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Information Seeking and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.05	-.04	-.13	.09	.08	-.07	-.01	.03	.09
Desire for control	.07	-.14	-.18	-.14	-.12	-.05	-.25 †	.07	-.34 **
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07 †
Step 2:									
Information seeking	.19	.23	.18	.17	.10	.02	.22	.03	.21
Time away from office	-.10	-.05	.16	.16	.11	.18	.00	-.01	-.10
ΔR^2	.05	.07	.07 †	.07 †	.03	.02	.04	.01	.08 †
Step 3:									
Information seeking x time away from office	-.06	-.10	-.22	-.25 †	-.22	-.13	-.01	-.17	-.16
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.04	.04 †	.03	.01	.00	.02	.02
Final R	.26	.28	.35	.36	.27	.20	.28	.22	.41
Final R^2	.07	.08	.12	.13	.07	.04	.08	.05	.17
F ratio	0.93	1.07	1.79	1.86	1.01	0.56	1.05	0.66	2.54 *

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 42. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on General Socializing and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	.02	-.09	.11	.05	-.04	-.00	.05	.14
Desire for control	.14	-.04	-.04	-.02	.01	-.02	-.17	.13	-.24 †
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07 †
Step 2:									
General socializing	.00	.05	.30*	.08	.34**	.02	.11	.13	-.01
Time away from office	-.07	-.03	.09	.08	-.03	.16	.01	-.08	-.10
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.11*	.01	.09*	.02	.01	.02	.02
Step 3:									
General socializing x time away from office	-.10	-.16	-.11	.06	.16	-.11	.02	-.03	-.11
ΔR^2	.01	.02	.01	.00	.02	.01	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.19	.19	.37	.17	.35	.19	.21	.20	.30
Final R^2	.03	.04	.14	.03	.12	.04	.05	.04	.09
F ratio	0.45	0.47	2.05 †	0.39	1.75	0.50	0.60	0.53	1.31

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 43. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Build – boss and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.02	-.04	-.12	.10	.07	-.07	-.04	.01	.09
Desire for control	.14	-.10	-.14	-.07	-.08	-.05	-.26*	.06	-.29*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07†
Step 2:									
Build – boss	.04	.36**	.45***	.29*	.23†	.25†	.48***	.35**	.34**
Time away from office	-.06	-.02	.14	.11	.03	.17	.02	-.07	-.11
ΔR^2	.02	.16**	.26***	.10*	.05	.10*	.22***	.12*	.14**
Step 3:									
Build – boss x time away from office	-.17	-.17	-.19†	-.09	.07	-.16	.01	-.00	-.09
ΔR^2	.02	.03	.03†	.01	.00	.02	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.24	.44	.55	.35	.24	.36	.51	.37	.47
Final R^2	.06	.19	.31	.12	.06	.13	.26	.14	.22
F ratio	0.77	2.99*	5.61***	1.80	0.80	1.94	4.37**	2.05†	3.56**

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 44. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Networking and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.02	-.01	-.09	.11	.09	-.05	-.03	.03	.06
Desire for control	.12	-.05	-.08	-.03	-.04	-.01	-.18	.11	-.24*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07†
Step 2:									
Networking	.12	.04	.08	.07	.08	-.05	.10	.10	.26*
Time away from office	-.08	-.05	.12	.09	.04	.14	.01	-.07	-.16
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.02	.01	.01	.02	.01	.01	.06
Step 3:									
Networking x time away from office	-.10	-.03	-.07	.03	.04	-.01	.15	.04	.24*
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	.05*
Final R	.23	.09	.21	.17	.14	.16	.24	.17	.42
Final R^2	.05	.01	.04	.03	.02	.03	.06	.03	.18
F ratio	0.72	0.10	0.57	0.36	0.24	0.35	0.80	0.39	2.74*

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 45. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Mentor Initiating and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.04	-.05	-.14	.06	.07	-.06	-.04	.02	.05
Desire for control	.12	-.08	-.12	-.10	-.08	-.03	-.24 †	.09	-.31 *
ΔR²	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07 †
Step 2:									
Mentor initiating	.08	.16	.23 †	.31 *	.16	.03	.24 †	.13	.34 **
Time away from office	.00	.04	.20	.12	.04	.24	.08	-.03	-.25 †
ΔR²	.02	.03	.07	.10 *	.03	.02	.06	.02	.11 *
Step 3:									
Mentor initiating x time away from office	-.18	-.19	-.22	-.14	-.04	-.16	-.15	-.09	.09
ΔR²	.02	.02	.03	.01	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01
Final R	.23	.24	.34	.35	.19	.21	.32	.20	.43
Final R²	.05	.06	.11	.12	.04	.04	.10	.04	.18
F ratio	0.73	0.75	1.65	1.81	0.49	0.57	1.47	0.55	2.88 *

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 46. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Self-Management and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.06	-.07	-.09	.11	.09	-.09	-.03	.04	.07
Desire for control	.18	-.00	-.06	.00	.00	.02	-.17	.13	-.24*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.06
Step 2:									
Self-management	.22†	.36**	-.08	.08	.06	.22†	.26*	.05	.35**
Time away from office	-.07	-.03	.12	.12	.07	.16	.03	-.06	-.13
ΔR^2	.09*	.17**	.01	.03	.03	.10*	.07†	.01	.10*
Step 3:									
Self-management x time away from office	-.18	-.12	-.09	-.16	-.24†	-.16	.01	-.02	.14
ΔR^2	.03	.01	.01	.02	.05†	.02	.00	.00	.02
Final R	.37	.43	.19	.25	.29	.36	.32	.15	.42
Final R^2	.14	.18	.04	.06	.08	.13	.10	.02	.18
F ratio	2.03†	2.94*	0.51	0.86	1.16	1.89	1.43	0.32	2.78*

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 47. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Monitoring and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.05	-.04	-.11	.12	.09	-.08	.01	.05	.12
Desire for control	.15	-.04	-.07	-.02	-.03	-.01	-.18	.12	-.23 †
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.06
Step 2:									
Feedback monitoring	-.11	.18	.19	.24	.18	-.17	.21	.17	.31 †
Time away from office	.15	.01	.19	.03	.14	.29	-.10	-.17	-.36
ΔR^2	.01	.06	.08 †	.06	.06	.03	.03	.02	.05
Step 3:									
Feedback monitoring x time away from office	-.28	-.13	-.18	.02	-.18	-.13	.10	.08	.23
ΔR^2	.02	.01	.01	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.21	.25	.33	.27	.28	.21	.25	.20	.36
Final R^2	.05	.06	.11	.07	.08	.04	.06	.04	.13
F ratio	0.62	0.86	1.54	1.00	1.12	0.60	0.84	0.54	1.94

Note. $N = 71$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 48. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Job – Change Negotiating and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.05	-.01	-.08	.14	.10	-.07	-.01	.06	.10
Desire for control	.17	-.03	-.09	-.05	-.07	.03	-.21	.12	-.24 †
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.07 †
Step 2:									
Job – change negot.	-.07	-.06	.02	.02	.11	-.18	.12	-.05	.04
Time away from office	-.09	-.04	.12	.11	.04	.16	.01	-.05	-.13
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.01	.01	.05	.01	.00	.02
Step 3:									
Job – change negot. x time away from office	.08	-.04	-.07	-.10	.01	.03	.08	-.07	.06
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00
Final R	.20	.09	.19	.18	.15	.24	.22	.16	.29
Final R^2	.04	.01	.04	.03	.02	.06	.05	.03	.09
F ratio	0.54	0.10	0.47	0.44	0.29	0.79	0.63	0.32	1.18

Note. $N = 70$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 49. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Voice and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.03	.03	-.09	.17	.17	-.01	.05	.05	.15
Desire for control	.07	-.13	-.08	-.09	-.13	-.07	-.23 †	.10	-.26*
ΔR²	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.06
Step 2:									
Voice	.23	.33*	.03	.27 †	.35*	.20	.14	.12	.06
Time away from office	-.07	-.03	.11	.10	.06	.16	.05	-.07	-.09
ΔR²	.08 †	.09*	.01	.07 †	.12*	.08 †	.04	.01	.03
Step 3:									
Voice x time away from office	-.09	.02	.00	.03	-.03	-.07	-.10	.09	-.15
ΔR²	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.01
Final R	.32	.31	.17	.28	.36	.29	.27	.17	.33
Final R²	.10	.10	.03	.08	.13	.08	.07	.03	.11
F ratio	1.44	1.38	0.40	1.12	1.96 †	1.19	1.03	0.41	1.60

Note. $N = 71$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 50. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Taking Charge and Time Spent Working Away from the Office

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.01	.02	-.10	.14	.12	-.05	.01	.01	.12
Desire for control	.07	-.13	-.10	-.05	-.09	-.07	-.25 †	.09	-.27*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.01	.03	.02	.06
Step 2:									
Taking charge	.36*	.43**	.12	.14	.23	.27 †	.28 †	.12	.19
Time away from office	-.10	-.06	.08	.11	.04	.12	-.01	-.12	-.13
ΔR^2	.14**	.19**	.02	.04	.06	.09**	.06	.00	.05
Step 3:									
Taking charge x time away from office	-.05	-.03	.06	-.06	-.03	.01	.07	.19	.01
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00
Final R	.40	.44	.20	.22	.26	.31	.30	.21	.33
Final R^2	.16	.19	.04	.05	.07	.09	.09	.04	.11
F ratio	2.49*	3.07*	0.53	0.67	0.97	1.34	1.33	0.59	1.58

Note. $N = 71$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Hypothesis 22 proposed that early fit perceptions would moderate the relationship between the antecedents and newcomer PSTs such that the relationship would be stronger when fit was low and weaker when fit was high. Because of the many relationships tested in this hypothesis, the *p*-value for any particular relationship would have to be quite low in order to be considered significant after the Bonferroni adjustment (.05/240 = .00021). None of the moderated relationships met this level of significance (see Table 51 through Table 70). However, taken together the results suggest that early P-J fit may play a moderating role in some of the relationships between POS and adjustment outcomes as well as some of the relationships between empowerment and adjustment outcomes. Therefore, I have plotted the relationships in this hypothesis with *p*-values less than .01.

Error! Reference source not found. and **Error! Reference source not found.** show similar relationships for the moderating effects of early P-J fit on the relationships between empowerment and both general socializing and networking. At low levels of empowerment, early fit perceptions did not matter to the PSTs. However, there was a positive relationship between empowerment and the PSTs for those with higher early fit perceptions and a negative relationship between empowerment and the PSTs for those with lower early fit perceptions. Individuals with lower levels of perceived fit with their jobs may feel overwhelmed or insecure when they also feel empowered. The fact that empowerment makes individuals feel a sense of ownership and responsibility may be a source of stress for newcomers that do not feel they have the abilities to meet the demands of their jobs. As a result of feeling overwhelmed by this empowerment, they may be less likely to engage in the social behaviors, such as general socializing and networking.

The relationship shown in **Error! Reference source not found.** is different than the two relationships just discussed in that this interaction is disordinal. At the lowest levels of empowerment, newcomers with low levels of early fit perceptions actually engaged in more taking charge than those newcomers that had higher early fit perceptions. Also, the relationship between empowerment and taking charge was positive for all three levels of fit perceptions, but the relationship is weaker for those with lower early fit perceptions. The relationships shown in **Error! Reference source not found.**, **Error! Reference source not found.**, and **Error! Reference source not found.** are similar to those in **Error! Reference source not found.** and **Error! Reference source not found.**, such that the relationship between the antecedent and PSTs is positive for those with higher early P-J fit perceptions and neutral to negative for newcomers with lower early P-J fit perceptions.

Given that these relationships were not significant after the Bonferroni adjustment and that they do not represent the hypothesized relationships, Hypothesis 22 is not supported.

Table 51. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Empowerment and Early Person – Organization Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.03	.09	.07	.01	.17†	.10	.21*	.16†	-.04	.11	-.15	-.03
Desire for control	.01	.15	.21*	-.11	.05	.01	.20*	-.09	-.04	.24*	.23*	.20*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Empowerment	.18†	.12	.13	.20†	.31**	.03	.07	.43***	-.05	-.19†	.42***	.40***
Early P-O fit	.24*	.16	.19†	-.02	.18†	.15	.01	.08	.13	-.02	-.12	-.14
ΔR^2	.09**	.04	.05†	.03	.13**	.02	.00	.22***	.02	.04	.14***	.14**
Step 3:												
Empowerment x early P-O fit	-.00	.13	.12	.23*	.10	.11	.17†	-.22*	.07	.05	.20*	.15
ΔR^2	.00	.02	.01	.05*	.01	.01	.03†	.05*	.00	.00	.04*	.02
Final R	.33	.34	.39	.29	.47	.23	.37	.55	.16	.30	.51	.46
Final R^2	.11	.12	.15	.09	.22	.06	.14	.30	.02	.09	.26	.21
F ratio	2.33*	2.51*	3.43**	1.78	5.30***	1.11	3.03*	8.22***	0.47	1.87	6.64***	5.10***

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 52. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on POS and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing	Feedback seeking	Information seeking	General socializing	Build – boss	Networking	Mentor initiating	Self-mgmt.	Feedback monitoring	Job negotiating	Voice	Taking charge
	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.02	.09	.07	.01	.16†	.09	.21*	.16	-.04	.10	-.14	-.02
Desire for control	.05	.17†	.23*	-.05	.11	.05	.23*	-.05	-.09	.21†	.32**	.28**
ΔR^2	.01	.06†	.08*	.01	.08*	.02	.10**	.04	.00	.05	.07*	.05†
Step 2:												
POS	.33**	.23*	.22*	.19†	.44***	.12	.09	.30**	.15	-.05	.26*	.25*
Early P-O fit	.15	.11	.14	-.03	.08	.13	.00	.00	.07	-.02	-.14	-.16
ΔR^2	.14**	.06*	.07*	.01	.18***	.03	.00	.12**	.04	.01	.03	.04
Step 3:												
POS x early P-O fit	.10	.13	.12	.24*	.18†	.21†	.19†	-.19†	-.07	.08	.23*	.17
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.01	.05*	.03†	.04†	.03†	.03†	.00	.01	.05*	.02
Final R	.40	.37	.41	.27	.53	.29	.37	.43	.21	.24	.39	.34
Final R^2	.16	.13	.16	.07	.28	.08	.13	.19	.05	.06	.15	.12
F ratio	3.64**	2.92*	3.73**	1.45	7.29***	1.71	2.95*	4.31**	0.89	1.16	3.39**	2.48*

Note. $N = 101$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 53. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Institutionalized Socialization and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.04	.11	.08	.04	.19*	.11	.23*	.16	-.04	.11	-.10	.01
Desire for control	.08	.19†	.27**	-.07	.14	.04	.22*	.07	-.00	.19†	.29**	.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Inst. socialization	.08	.12	.30**	.16	.24*	.17	.17	.15	.31**	-.03	.02	-.01
Early P-O fit	.26*	.17	.10	-.02	.16	.11	-.04	.08	.01	-.02	-.05	-.07
ΔR^2	.08*	.05†	.11**	.03	.11**	.05†	.02	.04	.09*	.00	.01	.01
Step 3:												
Inst. Soc. x early P-O fit	.16	.11	-.07	.07	.06	.02	-.03	.05	-.05	.04	.06	.02
ΔR^2	.02	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Final R	.34	.35	.44	.21	.43	.27	.36	.27	.30	.23	.29	.25
Final R^2	.11	.12	.20	.05	.19	.07	.13	.08	.09	.05	.08	.06
F ratio	2.46*	2.68*	4.72**	0.91	4.40**	1.47	2.87*	1.55	1.93†	1.05	1.74	1.24

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 54. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Ambiguity and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.03	.10	.08	.04	.18†	.11	.23*	.14	-.03	.11	-.11	-.00
Desire for control	.05	.16	.23	-.10	.10	.00	.19†	.05	-.06	.19†	.29**	.26**
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Role ambiguity	-.19†	-.14	-.20*	-.05	-.22*	-.04	.03	-.36***	.01	.08	-.14	-.23*
Early P-O fit	.22*	.16	.17†	.02	.18†	.16	.04	.04	.13	-.03	-.08	-.14
ΔR^2	.10**	.05†	.08*	.00	.09**	.03	.00	.14**	.02	.01	.02	.06*
Step 3:												
Role ambiguity x early P-O fit	-.02	-.04	-.04	-.16	.01	-.05	-.07	.17†	-.04	.10	-.12	.13
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.01	.03†	.00	.01	.01	.02
Final R	.34	.33	.41	.20	.41	.22	.34	.45	.13	.26	.34	.36
Final R^2	.11	.11	.17	.04	.17	.05	.11	.21	.02	.07	.11	.13
F ratio	2.44*	2.38*	3.87**	0.77	3.96**	0.96	2.42*	4.96***	0.35	1.36	2.44*	2.87*

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 55. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Conflict and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.07	.13	.07	.03	.22*	.09	.18†	.21*	-.04	.07	-.13	-.02
Desire for control	.08	.18†	.22*	-.11	.12	-.01	.15	.08	-.05	.16	.26*	.23*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Role conflict	-.17	-.09	.02	.01	-.13	.07	.19†	-.24*	-.02	.15	.09	.10
Early P-O fit	.20†	.16	.16	-.02	.19†	.14	.04	.09	.10	-.01	-.05	-.05
ΔR^2	.09*	.04	.04†	.00	.06*	.03	.04	.07*	.02	.02	.01	.02
Step 3:												
Role conflict x early P-O fit	-.07	-.03	-.20*	-.14	-.03	-.12	-.10	.07	-.10	.00	-.06	.02
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.03*	.02	.00	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00
Final R	.32	.31	.41	.18	.37	.25	.39	.33	.16	.27	.30	.26
Final R^2	.11	.10	.17	.03	.14	.06	.15	.11	.03	.07	.09	.07
F ratio	2.25†	2.10†	3.78**	0.63	3.13*	1.29	3.49**	2.31†	0.48	1.47	1.93†	1.44

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 56. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Overload and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.06	.11	.10	.03	.21*	.12	.23*	.17	-.03	.10	-.10	.00
Desire for control	.03	.16	.20*	-.12	.08	-.01	.17 †	.04	-.07	.20 †	.26*	.26*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Role overload	-.21*	-.04	-.08	.13	-.15	-.03	.13	-.15	.03	.06	.00	-.00
Early P-O fit	.23*	.19 †	.18 †	.02	.21*	.15	.02	.12	.12	-.03	-.08	-.06
ΔR^2	.10**	.03	.05 †	.02	.07*	.02	.02	.04	.02	.01	.00	.01
Step 3:												
Role overload x early P-O fit	-.08	.06	-.15	-.11	-.04	-.09	-.18 †	.08	-.09	.04	-.15	.13
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.02	.01	.00	.01	.03 †	.01	.01	.00	.02	.02
Final R	.35	.31	.39	.20	.38	.23	.40	.28	.16	.24	.32	.28
Final R^2	.13	.10	.15	.04	.15	.05	.06	.08	.03	.06	.10	.08
F ratio	2.75*	2.07 †	3.49**	0.84	3.31**	1.04	3.59**	1.66	0.51	1.13	2.11 †	1.59

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 57. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Novelty and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing	Feedback seeking	Information seeking	General socializing	Build – boss	Networking	Mentor initiating	Self-mgmt.	Feedback monitoring	Job negotiating	Voice	Taking charge
	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.03	.13	.07	.05	.19 †	.08	.22*	.16	-.04	.07	-.10	.02
Desire for control	.04	.16	.22*	-.11	.09	-.00	.19 †	.04	-.05	.18 †	.28**	.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Role novelty	-.06	.03	-.18 †	.06	-.05	-.15	-.11	.01	-.17	-.15	.01	.03
Early P-O fit	.26*	.21 †	.26*	.01	.24*	.17	.05	.13	.19	-.05	-.04	-.08
ΔR^2	.07*	.04	.06*	.01	.05 †	.05 †	.01	.01	.03	.04	.00	.01
Step 3:												
Role novelty x early P-O fit	-.04	.11	.09	.01	.01	-.07	.02	.03	.15	-.15	.07	.03
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.02	.00	.00
Final R	.29	.33	.40	.13	.36	.28	.34	.23	.22	.33	.29	.25
Final R^2	.08	.11	.16	.02	.13	.08	.12	.05	.05	.11	.08	.06
F ratio	1.76	2.28 †	3.55**	0.32	2.79*	1.58	2.54*	1.03	1.01	2.27 †	1.73	1.28

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 58. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Job Autonomy and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.04	.09	.08	.04	.20*	.09	.22*	.20*	-.05	.07	-.11	.00
Desire for control	.04	.17 †	.22*	-.07	.11	.04	.21*	-.01	-.06	.21*	.31**	.27*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Job autonomy	-.00	-.17 †	-.03	.10	.11	-.02	-.06	.29**	-.11	-.30**	.10	.06
Early P-O fit	.26*	.16	.21*	.01	.23*	.14	.01	.16	.12	-.07	-.06	-.09
ΔR^2	.06*	.06*	.04	.00	.06*	.03	.01	.11**	.03	.09**	.01	.01
Step 3:												
Job autonomy x early P-O fit	-.03	.05	.02	.19	.08	.16	.08	-.14	-.02	.05	.14	.12
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.03 †	.01	.02	.01	.02	.00	.00	.02	.01
Final R	.28	.36	.36	.22	.37	.26	.35	.41	.17	.38	.32	.27
Final R^2	.08	.13	.13	.05	.14	.07	.12	.17	.03	.14	.10	.07
F ratio	1.64	2.79*	2.83*	0.94	3.13*	1.44	2.59*	3.79**	0.56	3.24*	2.13 †	1.52

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 59. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Age and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.03	.09	.08	.02	.18 †	.13	.25*	.16	-.02	.12	-.14	-.03
Desire for control	.03	.16	.21*	-.10	.09	-.01	.17 †	.02	-.05	.19 †	.26**	.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Age	.11	-.03	.08	-.01	-.01	.09	.12	.10	-.09	-.01	.19 †	.04
Early P-O fit	.24*	.22 †	.20 †	.07	.26*	.08	-.04	.09	.13	-.06	-.05	-.02
ΔR^2	.07*	.03	.05 †	.00	.05 †	.02	.00	.02	.02	.00	.06 †	.02
Step 3:												
Age x early P-O fit	-.02	.09	-.01	.15	.10	-.19	-.15	-.06	-.01	-.07	.09	.18
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02	.02	.00	.00	.00	.01	.02
Final R	.30	.31	.36	.17	.37	.26	.35	.24	.16	.23	.37	.31
Final R^2	.09	.10	.13	.03	.13	.07	.12	.06	.03	.06	.14	.09
F ratio	1.87	2.07 †	2.92*	0.58	2.94*	1.39	2.73*	1.16	0.50	1.11	3.03*	2.00 †

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 60. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Number of Transitions and Early P-O Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.03	.11	.09	.06	.20*	.10	.23*	.17	-.03	.11	-.11	.02
Desire for control	.03	.16	.21*	-.08	.09	-.01	.18 †	.06	-.05	.20 †	.26*	.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.07*	.10**	.01	.10**	.02	.13**	.05	.00	.06 †	.09*	.06*
Step 2:												
Number of transitions	.22*	.10	.15	-.04	.17 †	.06	.19 †	.03	.01	.09	.20 †	.03
Early P-O fit	.24*	.16	.20*	.01	.21*	.16	.00	.10	.11	-.06	-.07	-.07
ΔR^2	.10**	.03	.05	.00	.07*	.03	.03	.01	.01	.00	.05 †	.02
Step 3:												
Number of transitions x early P-O fit	-.08	-.12	-.05	.03	-.05	-.06	-.08	-.09	-.11	-.12	.05	.19 †
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.01	.01	.00	.03 †
Final R	.35	.34	.39	.11	.41	.22	.40	.26	.16	.27	.37	.33
Final R^2	.12	.11	.15	.01	.16	.05	.16	.07	.03	.08	.14	.11
F ratio	2.65*	2.41*	3.45**	0.22	3.73**	0.96	3.58**	1.32	0.52	1.54	3.01*	2.33*

Note. $N = 101$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 61. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Empowerment and Early Person – Job Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.06	.13	.10	.01	.20*	.12	.22*	.15 †	-.02	.11	-.16 †	-.06
Desire for control	.04	.16	.22*	-.15	.06	.01	.17 †	-.04	-.03	.22*	.18 †	.15
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Empowerment	.20 †	.02	.12	.16	.26*	-.03	.06	.41***	-.02	-.24*	.41***	.42***
Early P-J fit	.10	.37**	.16	.24*	.27*	.33**	.10	.10	-.03	.19	.05	.06
ΔR^2	.04	.06*	.02	.03	.12**	.03	.00	.23***	.01	.05 †	.13***	.13**
Step 3:												
Empowerment x early P-J fit	.14	.26*	.25*	.38**	.22*	.34**	.22*	-.08	.07	.17	.21*	.31**
ΔR^2	.02	.05*	.05*	.11**	.04*	.09**	.04*	.00	.00	.02	.03*	.07**
Final R	.27	.42	.39	.39	.48	.37	.38	.52	.10	.34	.49	.50
Final R^2	.07	.17	.15	.15	.23	.14	.15	.27	.01	.12	.24	.25
F ratio	1.51	4.00**	3.40**	3.39**	5.87***	2.99*	3.25**	7.11***	0.19	2.58*	6.16***	6.52***

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 62. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on POS and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.04	.11	.08	.01	.18*	.11	.21*	.16 †	-.05	.10	-.14	-.04
Desire for control	.04	.15	.22*	-.11	.07	.01	.19 †	.00	-.06	.19 †	.25*	.22*
ΔR^2	.01	.06 †	.08*	.01	.08*	.02	.10**	.04	.00	.05	.07*	.05 †
Step 2:												
POS	.36**	.17 †	.24*	.09	.38***	.08	.06	.27**	.25*	-.08	.13	.15
Early P-J fit	.03	.27*	.10	.21 †	.21*	.24*	.09	.19 †	-.13	.08	.15	.11
ΔR^2	.12**	.08*	.05 †	.02	.19***	.03	.00	.16***	.06 †	.01	.03	.02
Step 3:												
POS x early P-J fit	.08	.22*	.25*	.32**	.18 †	.30**	.25*	-.10	.07	.15	.20 †	.21 †
ΔR^2	.01	.04*	.05*	.09**	.03 †	.08**	.05*	.01	.01	.02	.04 †	.04 †
Final R	.37	.43	.44	.34	.54	.35	.40	.45	.25	.27	.37	.33
Final R^2	.14	.18	.19	.12	.29	.12	.16	.21	.06	.07	.13	.11
F ratio	3.08*	4.22**	4.43**	2.52*	7.90***	2.68*	3.51**	4.92***	1.26	1.46	2.95*	2.37*

Note. $N = 101$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 63. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Institutionalized Socialization and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.07	.13	.11	.03	.22*	.12	.23*	.18 †	-.04	.09	-.11	.00
Desire for control	.11	.19*	.29**	-.09	.15	.05	.22*	.06	.02	.18 †	.26*	.22*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Inst. socialization	.14	.13	.32**	.11	.23*	.15	.15	.16	.32**	-.08	.03	-.05
Early P-J fit	.13	.25*	.02	.15	.25*	.16	.00	.25*	-.13	.07	.08	.09
ΔR^2	.04	.08*	.10**	.04	.14***	.06 †	.02	.11**	.10**	.00	.02	.01
Step 3:												
Inst. socialization x early P-J fit	.10	.06	-.04	.12	.07	.10	.03	-.10	.00	.14	-.10	-.02
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01	.00	.02	.01	.00
Final R	.26	.38	.43	.24	.47	.29	.36	.40	.32	.25	.31	.25
Final R^2	.07	.15	.18	.06	.22	.08	.13	.16	.11	.06	.10	.07
F ratio	1.39	3.28**	4.33**	1.21	5.37***	1.74	2.85*	3.58**	2.25 †	1.32	2.10 †	1.33

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 64. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Ambiguity and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.07	.13	.11	.05	.22*	.14	.24*	.16†	-.02	.11	-.12	-.02
Desire for control	.09	.16†	.26**	-.12	.12	.00	.19†	.06	-.03	.18†	.25*	.23*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Role ambiguity	-.22*	-.08	-.24*	-.01	-.18†	-.00	.03	-.31**	-.05	.10	-.09	-.20†
Early P-J fit	.05	.26*	-.01	.14	.21†	.20†	.03	.16	-.10	.04	.15	.05
ΔR^2	.06†	.07*	.06†	.02	.10**	.02	.00	.18***	.01	.01	.02	.04†
Step 3:												
Role ambiguity x early P-J fit	.03	-.10	.08	-.04	.02	-.13	.00	.13	.04	.00	-.13	-.07
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01	.00	.02	.00	.00	.02	.01
Final R	.27	.37	.38	.17	.43	.24	.33	.48	.10	.24	.34	.32
Final R^2	.07	.14	.15	.03	.18	.06	.11	.23	.01	.06	.12	.10
F ratio	1.47	3.07*	3.28**	0.57	4.26**	1.17	2.29†	5.75***	0.18	1.17	2.49*	2.21†

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 65. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Conflict and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.12	.15	.12	.03	.25*	.12	.20*	.22*	-.01	.07	-.14	-.03
Desire for control	.12	.18†	.24*	-.13	.12	-.01	.15	.07	-.03	.15	.23*	.20†
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Role conflict	-.19†	-.06	.04	.07	-.10	.10	.22*	-.18†	-.05	.17	.16	.15
Early P-J fit	.03	.29**	.09	.22†	.29**	.23*	.09	.21*	-.09	.04	.18	.14
ΔR^2	.05	.06*	.01	.02	.08*	.03	.04	.13**	.01	.03	.04	.03
Step 3:												
Role conflict x early P-J fit	.10	-.14	.04	-.17	-.10	-.12	-.03	.13	.03	.02	-.03	-.03
ΔR^2	.01	.02	.00	.02	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00
Final R	.26	.37	.31	.24	.41	.26	.38	.42	.10	.27	.34	.29
Final R^2	.07	.14	.10	.06	.17	.07	.15	.18	.01	.07	.11	.08
F ratio	1.40	3.11*	2.08†	1.16	3.87**	1.33	3.29**	4.19**	0.18	1.53	2.45*	1.71

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 66. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Overload and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.09	.13	.13	.03	.25*	.12	.22*	.18†	-.02	.08	-.11	-.02
Desire for control	.07	.17†	.24*	-.11	.10	.02	.19*	.03	-.04	.19†	.26**	.23*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Role overload	-.21*	-.02	-.07	.16	-.13	-.01	.15	-.12	.02	.07	.04	.01
Early P-J fit	.10	.26**	.09	.15	.26**	.16	.04	.30**	-.06	.02	.13	.09
ΔR^2	.06*	.06*	.01	.04	.09**	.02	.02	.12**	.01	.00	.02	.01
Step 3:												
Role overload x early P-J fit	.13	.18†	.05	.02	.02	.16	.03	.07	.05	.15	-.10	.09
ΔR^2	.02	.03†	.00	.00	.00	.03	.00	.01	.00	.02	.01	.01
Final R	.31	.39	.32	.23	.41	.27	.36	.40	.09	.27	.32	.27
Final R^2	.09	.15	.10	.05	.17	.07	.13	.16	.01	.07	.10	.07
F ratio	1.96†	3.48**	2.21†	1.05	3.90**	1.45	2.82*	3.56**	0.16	1.54	2.19†	1.46

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 67. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Role Novelty and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.08	.14	.11	.05	.23*	.11	.22*	.18†	-.03	.07	-.12	-.01
Desire for control	.08	.16†	.25*	-.12	.11	.02	.19†	.03	-.04	.19†	.26*	.23*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05†	.08*	.06†
Step 2:												
Role novelty	-.06	.01	-.15	.03	-.07	-.21*	-.11	-.03	-.12	-.21*	-.03	-.01
Early P-J fit	.14	.36**	.17	.18	.30**	.28*	.05	.33**	.03	.06	.22†	.16
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.03	.02	.08*	.06†	.01	.10**	.01	.04	.02	.01
Step 3:												
Role novelty x early P-J fit	.01	.25*	.09	.14	.03	.20†	.03	.01	.18	.03	.19†	.18
ΔR^2	.00	.05*	.01	.02	.00	.03†	.00	.00	.03	.00	.03†	.02
Final R	.18	.42	.35	.21	.40	.33	.34	.37	.20	.30	.35	.29
Final R^2	.03	.18	.12	.05	.16	.11	.12	.14	.04	.09	.12	.09
F ratio	0.66	4.08**	2.64*	0.90	3.57**	2.27†	2.55*	3.03*	0.79	1.90	2.64*	1.82

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 68. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Job Autonomy and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.07	.10	.11	.03	.23*	.11	.22*	.20*	-.03	.06	-.12	-.02
Desire for control	.08	.17 †	.25*	-.10	.11	.03	.19*	.04	-.04	.18 †	.27**	.24*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Job autonomy	-.03	-.21*	-.04	.16	.08	.01	-.05	.26*	-.11	-.29**	.12	.13
Early P-J fit	.17	.40***	.16	.23*	.34**	.29**	.09	.28**	-.04	.13	.18	.17
ΔR^2	.02	.14***	.02	.02	.08*	.04	.01	.15***	.02	.10**	.02	.01
Step 3:												
Job autonomy x early P-J fit	.09	.21 †	.13	.33**	.20 †	.32*	.12	.08	-.01	.10	.19	.28*
ΔR^2	.01	.03 †	.01	.07**	.03 †	.06*	.01	.00	.00	.01	.02	.05*
Final R	.20	.48	.34	.32	.42	.35	.35	.43	.13	.39	.34	.34
Final R^2	.04	.23	.11	.10	.18	.12	.12	.19	.02	.15	.12	.11
F ratio	0.76	5.73***	2.45*	2.14 †	4.16**	2.66*	2.71*	4.42**	0.33	3.49**	2.52*	2.44*

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 69. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Age and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.06	.13	.11	.03	.23*	.14	.23*	.18 †	-.01	.11	-.13	-.01
Desire for control	.07	.17 †	.24*	-.11	.11	.02	.18 †	.03	-.03	.19 †	.24*	.22*
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.09*	.01	.08*	.02	.11**	.04	.00	.05 †	.08*	.06 †
Step 2:												
Age	.10	-.01	.07	.01	.03	.01	.06	.07	-.09	-.03	.23*	.11
Early P-J fit	.15	.29**	.12	.18	.29**	.16	.00	.30**	-.04	-.01	.09	.06
ΔR^2	.03	.06*	.02	.02	.08*	.02	.00	.10**	.01	.00	.06*	.02
Step 3:												
Age x early P-J fit	.10	.11	.10	.16	.05	.02	-.04	-.05	.05	-.06	-.05	-.05
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.01	.02	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
Final R	.23	.37	.33	.22	.40	.21	.33	.38	.12	.23	.37	.27
Final R^2	.05	.13	.11	.05	.16	.04	.11	.14	.01	.05	.14	.07
F ratio	1.08	2.95*	2.40*	1.01	3.55**	0.89	2.37*	3.16*	0.27	1.08	3.06*	1.52

Note. $N = 102$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.
[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 70. Moderated Regressions of PSTs on Number of Transitions and Early P-J Fit

	Positive framing β[a]	Feedback seeking β[a]	Information seeking β[a]	General socializing β[a]	Build – boss β[a]	Networking β[a]	Mentor initiating β[a]	Self-mgmt. β[a]	Feedback monitoring β[a]	Job negotiating β[a]	Voice β[a]	Taking charge β[a]
Step 1:												
Proactive personality	.08	.15	.12	.06	.24*	.13	.24*	.19*	-.01	.11	-.12	.00
Desire for control	.06	.16	.24*	-.09	.10	.00	.18†	.05	-.02	.19†	.23*	.23*
ΔR^2	.02	.07*	.10**	.01	.10**	.02	.13**	.05	.00	.06†	.09*	.06*
Step 2:												
Number of transitions	.20†	.08	.13	-.03	.19*	.06	.18†	.02	-.03	.05	.23*	.10
Early P-J fit	.11	.25*	.09	.11	.28**	.16	.01	.31**	-.07	-.00	.12	.08
ΔR^2	.05†	.07*	.02	.01	.09**	.03	.03	.09**	.01	.00	.06*	.01
Step 3:												
Number of transitions x early P-J fit	.02	-.13	.02	-.01	-.15	-.08	-.06	-.00	.00	-.05	-.07	-.08
ΔR^2	.00	.02	.00	.00	.02	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01
Final R	.27	.38	.35	.15	.46	.23	.40	.37	.08	.25	.39	.29
Final R^2	.07	.15	.12	.02	.21	.05	.16	.14	.01	.06	.15	.08
F ratio	1.47	3.22*	2.64*	0.46	5.09***	1.04	3.55**	3.05*	0.14	1.24	3.31**	1.72

Note. $N = 101$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

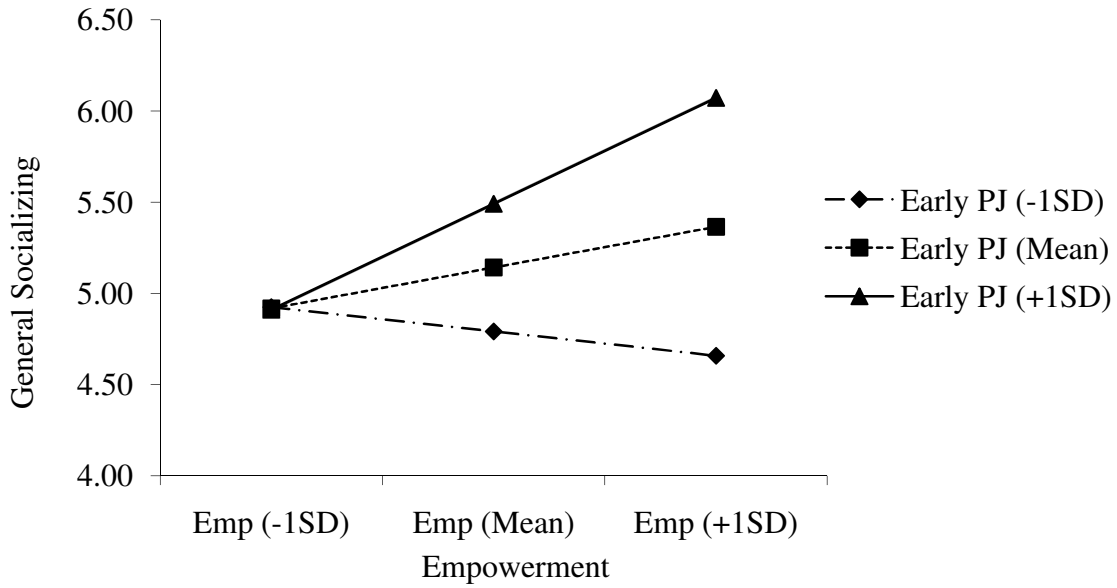

Figure 3. The Moderating Effect of Early P-J Fit on the Relationship between Empowerment and General Socializing

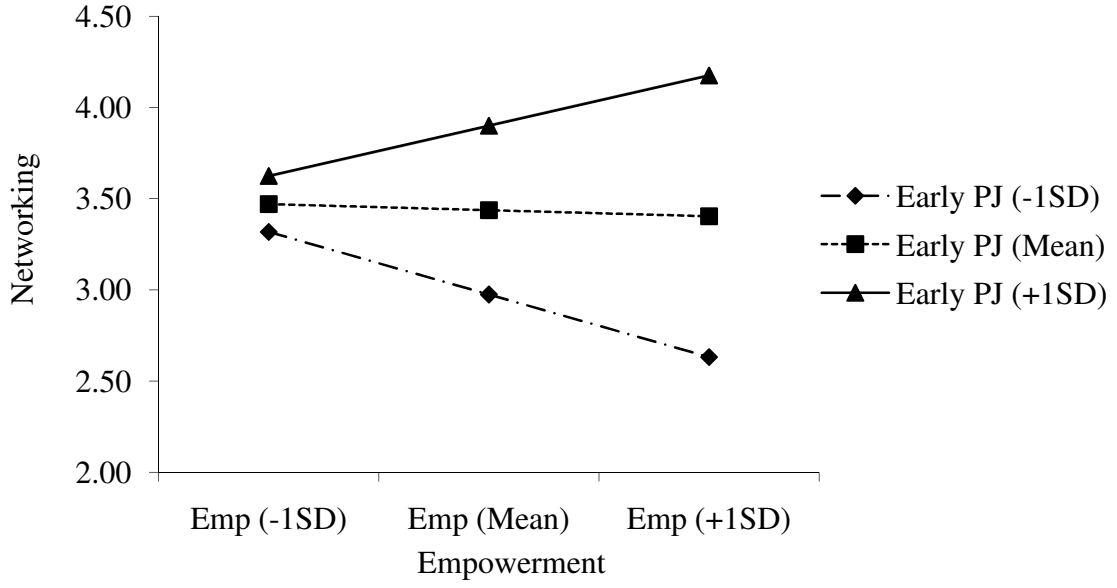

Figure 4. The Moderating Effect of Early P-J Fit on the Relationship between Empowerment and Networking

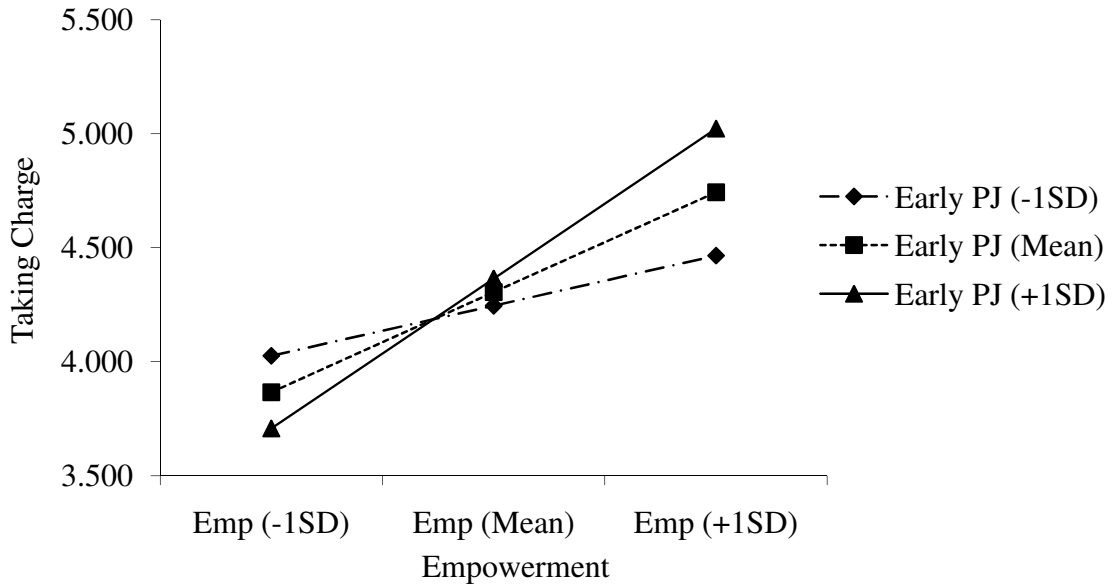

Figure 5. The Moderating Effect of Early P-J Fit on the Relationship between Empowerment and Taking Charge

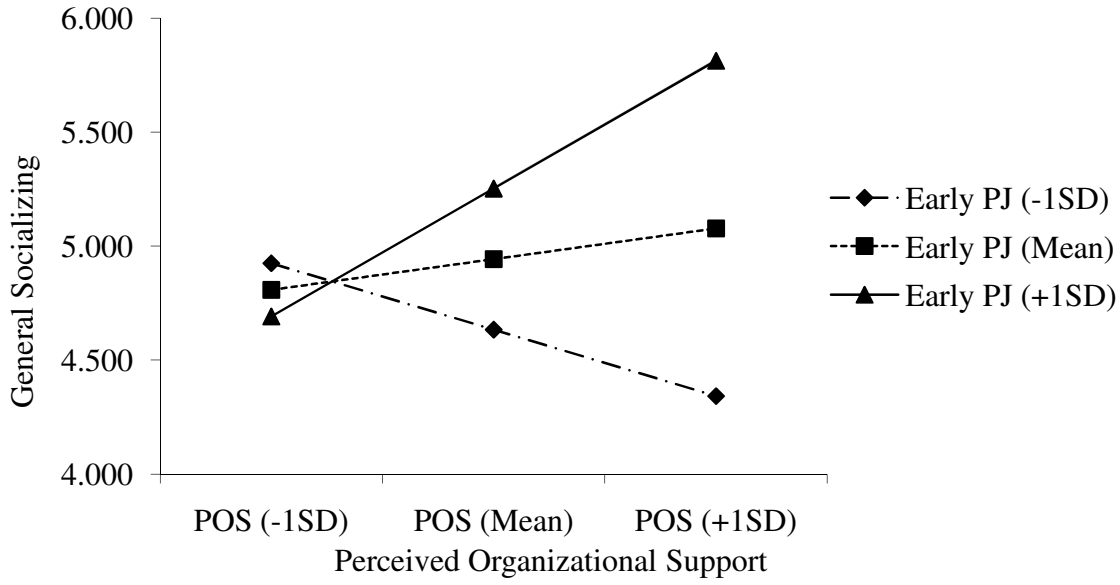

Figure 6. The Moderating Effect of Early P-J Fit on the Relationship between POS and General Socializing

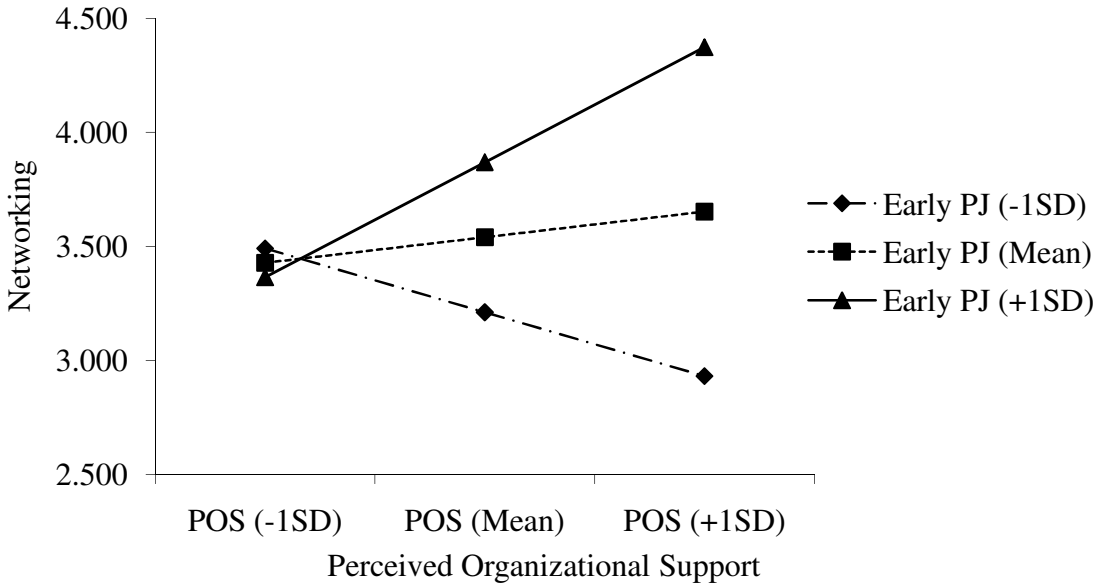

Figure 7. The Moderating Effect of Early P-J Fit on the Relationship between POS and Networking

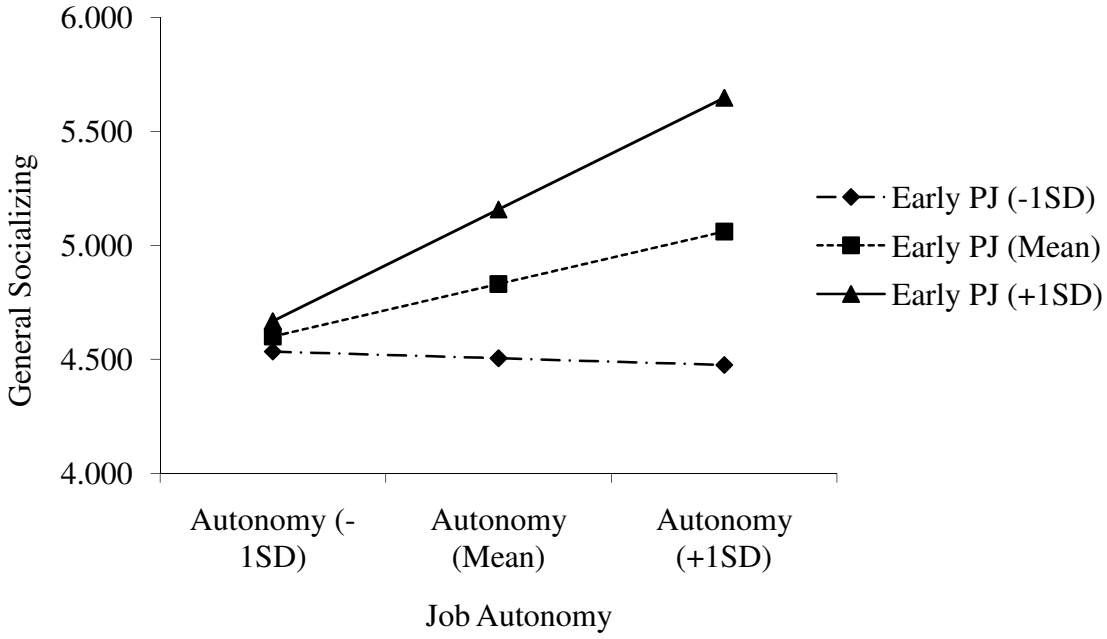

Figure 8. The Moderating Effect of Early P-J Fit on the Relationship between Job Autonomy and General Socializing

Hypothesis 23 proposed that early fit perceptions would moderate the relationships between newcomer PSTs and adjustment, such that the relationships would be stronger when perceived fit was low and weaker when perceived fit was high. This hypothesis was not supported. The Bonferroni-adjusted *p*-value for each relationship tested in this hypothesis is .00023 (.05/16 = .00023). Table 71 through Table 94 show very limited moderating effects of early fit perceptions on the relationships between PSTs and adjustment outcomes. Although several relationships are significant with *p*-value less than .05, none of them meets the stricter Bonferroni-corrected significant requirement. One of the relationships, the moderating role of early P-O fit perceptions on the relationship between feedback monitoring and P-J fit (Time 3), had a *p*-value less than .01. For illustrative purposes, an interaction plot of this relationship appears in Error! Reference source not found.. This figure shows that when newcomers engage in low amounts of feedback monitoring, early P-O fit perceptions to do not matter to the outcome of P-J fit. However, the relationship between feedback monitoring and P-J fit was positive for those with higher levels of early P-O fit perceptions and the relationship was negative for newcomers with lower level of early P-O fit perceptions.

Table 71. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Positive Framing and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.02	-.03	-.12	-.04	-.04	-.16	-.06	-.06	.03
Desire for control	.12	.01	-.05	-.07	-.11	-.03	-.16	.05	-.30**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Positive framing	.15	.19	.23†	.17†	-.03	-.10	.14	.24*	.19†
Early P-O fit	.03	.13	.10	.62***	.24†	.39**	.32*	.47***	.45***
ΔR^2	.02	.07†	.08†	.43***	.04	.12**	.14**	.32***	.26***
Step 3:									
Positive framing x early P-O fit	-.03	.03	.05	-.10	.12	.07	-.07	.05	-.12
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.01
Final R	.21	.27	.29	.68	.25	.36	.38	.60	.56
Final R^2	.05	.07	.09	.46	.06	.13	.15	.36	.31
F ratio	.71	1.12	1.33	12.50***	1.02	2.17†	2.50*	8.18***	6.62***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 72. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Seeking and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.05	-.08	-.14	-.06	-.03	-.18	-.10	-.07	.01
Desire for control	.14	-.02	-.08	-.07	-.14	-.02	-.19†	.02	-.33**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Feedback seeking	.06	.32**	.26*	.10	.08	.08	.26*	.20*	.21*
Early P-O fit	.07	.12	.12	.66***	.21†	.34**	.32**	.50***	.47***
ΔR^2	.01	.12**	.09*	.42***	.05	.12**	.18**	.30***	.27***
Step 3:									
Feedback seeking x early P-O fit	.15	.25*	.15	.01	.02	.22*	.07	.09	-.08
ΔR^2	.02	.06*	.02	.00	.00	.05*	.00	.01	.01
Final R	.23	.43	.33	.66	.24	.41	.44	.59	.56
Final R^2	.05	.18	.11	.44	.06	.17	.19	.34	.31
F ratio	.80	3.27*	1.85	11.46***	.89	3.01*	3.47**	7.70***	6.76***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 73. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Information Seeking and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.03	-.03	-.11	-.06	-.04	-.17	-.08	-.06	-.01
Desire for control	.07	-.05	-.11	-.08	-.15	-.00	-.18	.09	-.28**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Information seeking	.18	.21	.24†	.10	.19	.04	.18	-.02	.20†
Early P-O fit	.03	.15	.12	.65***	.23†	.42**	.36**	.60***	.55***
ΔR^2	.04	.06†	.07	.41***	.06†	.11*	.14**	.26***	.25***
Step 3:									
Information seeking x early P-O fit	-.04	.03	.02	.01	.17	.24*	.13	.18†	.28*
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.00	.02	.05*	.02	.03†	.06*
Final R	.24	.26	.27	.66	.30	.40	.40	.57	.59
Final R^2	.06	.07	.08	.44	.09	.16	.16	.33	.35
F ratio	.91	1.08	1.20	11.42***	1.50	2.89*	2.78*	7.26***	7.91***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 74. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on General Socializing and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.03	-.01	-.12	-.07	-.05	-.15	-.08	-.05	.00
Desire for control	.13	.03	.02	-.05	-.12	-.03	-.14	.06	-.28**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
General socializing	-.02	-.03	.28*	.13	.29*	-.01	.12	.10	.07
Early P-O fit	.09	.10	.17	.73***	.27*	.33**	.38**	.53***	.55***
ΔR^2	.01	.04	.11*	.41***	.11*	.11*	.13**	.28***	.24***
Step 3:									
General socializing x early P-O fit	-.02	.28*	.05	-.14	-.10	.10	-.01	.07	-.10
ΔR^2	.00	.06*	.00	.02	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.17	.32	.34	.67	.36	.35	.37	.56	.53
Final R^2	.03	.10	.12	.45	.13	.13	.14	.32	.28
F ratio	.42	1.66	1.99†	12.13***	2.16†	2.12†	2.37*	6.89***	5.76***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 75. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Build – Boss and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.07	-.11	-.19†	-.07	-.04	-.20†	-.12	-.08	-.01
Desire for control	.11	-.03	-.12	-.11	-.15	-.07	-.24*	-.02	-.36**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Build – boss	.19	.36**	.48***	.24*	.14	.25*	.45***	.33**	.32**
Early P-O fit	.04	.11	.09	.65***	.20	.31**	.30**	.50***	.48***
ΔR^2	.04	.15**	.24***	.45***	.06†	.17**	.30***	.36***	.32***
Step 3:									
Build – boss x early P-O fit	.08	.15	.08	-.09	.03	.08	-.01	-.04	-.11
ΔR^2	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.26	.42	.50	.69	.26	.43	.55	.63	.61
Final R^2	.07	.18	.25	.48	.07	.18	.30	.40	.37
F ratio	1.04	3.17*	4.89**	13.78***	1.10	3.31**	6.43***	9.75***	8.60***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 76. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Networking and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.04	-.02	-.11	-.07	-.02	-.13	-.09	-.04	-.03
Desire for control	.11	.01	-.05	-.06	-.13	-.02	-.16	.05	-.31**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Networking	.12	-.02	.07	.04	.03	-.09	.08	.06	.22*
Early P-O fit	.07	.19	.16	.68***	.22†	.36**	.37**	.53***	.51***
ΔR^2	.02	.03	.03	.41***	.05	.12**	.13**	.27***	.28***
Step 3:									
Networking x early P-O fit	-.02	.06	.07	-.12	.01	.08	-.08	.10	-.16†
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.01	.01	.01	.03†
Final R	.20	.20	.20	.66	.23	.36	.37	.56	.58
Final R^2	.04	.04	.04	.44	.05	.13	.14	.31	.34
F ratio	.62	.58	.63	11.70***	.81	2.22†	2.32†	6.74***	7.50***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 77. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Mentor Initiating and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.05	-.04	-.16	-.11	-.04	-.15	-.11	-.07	-.05
Desire for control	.11	-.01	-.11	-.10	-.15	-.05	-.21†	.02	-.34**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Mentor initiating	.10	.08	.25*	.23*	.10	.03	.23*	.10	.29**
Early P-O fit	.07	.20	.18	.67***	.22†	.38**	.39**	.56***	.51***
ΔR^2	.01	.04	.08*	.45***	.05	.11*	.17**	.27***	.31***
Step 3:									
Mentor initiating x early P-O fit	-.05	.07	.11	.00	.01	.15	.14	.13	.03
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.02	.02	.02	.00
Final R	.19	.21	.31	.69	.24	.38	.44	.57	.59
Final R^2	.04	.04	.10	.48	.06	.14	.19	.33	.35
F ratio	.57	.69	1.61	13.39***	.93	2.42*	3.48**	7.20***	7.82***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 78. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Self-Management and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.10	-.12	-.11	-.06	-.06	-.20†	-.09	-.06	-.01
Desire for control	.14	.01	-.04	-.08	-.12	-.05	-.21†	.03	-.33**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Self-management	.36**	.43***	.02	.12	.12	.30**	.33**	.10	.30**
Early P-O fit	.04	.13	.17	.68***	.20†	.32**	.36**	.54***	.50***
ΔR^2	.12**	.20***	.03	.42***	.06	.19***	.24***	.27***	.33***
Step 3:									
Self-management x early P-O fit	.10	.09	.00	-.14	.08	-.03	-.22*	-.07	-.22*
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.00	.02	.01	.00	.04*	.00	.04*
Final R	.39	.45	.18	.68	.26	.45	.53	.56	.63
Final R^2	.15	.21	.03	.46	.07	.20	.28	.31	.40
F ratio	2.71*	3.89**	.49	12.66***	1.08	3.72**	5.89***	6.84***	10.07***

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 79. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Monitoring and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.03	-.04	-.10	-.06	-.02	-.17	-.08	-.06	.00
Desire for control	.14	.03	-.04	-.05	-.12	-.01	-.13	.07	-.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Feedback monitoring	.04	.09	.19	.11	.15	-.11	.14	.06	.10
Early P-O fit	.10	.21†	.13	.65***	.20	.45***	.37**	.59***	.53***
ΔR^2	.01	.03	.06†	.42***	.07†	.12**	.14**	.26***	.24***
Step 3:									
Feedback monitoring x early P-O fit	.09	.17	-.03	-.02	.00	.32**	.09	.21*	.15
ΔR^2	.01	.03	.00	.00	.00	.10**	.01	.04*	.02
Final R	.19	.25	.26	.66	.27	.47	.38	.58	.54
Final R^2	.04	.06	.07	.44	.07	.23	.15	.34	.29
F ratio	.55	.98	1.09	11.66***	1.16	4.35**	2.57*	7.65***	6.07***

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 80. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Job – Change Negotiating and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	-.02	-.12	-.06	-.02	-.13	-.06	-.04	.01
Desire for control	.18	.03	-.06	-.06	-.15	.02	-.14	.06	-.26*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Job – change negot.	-.17	-.09	.08	.03	.07	-.20†	-.03	-.05	-.03
Early P-O fit	.05	.13	.24†	.66***	.22†	.32*	.33**	.51***	.53***
ΔR^2	.03	.03	.03	.41***	.05	.14**	.12**	.26***	.24***
Step 3:									
Job – change negot. x early P-O fit	.07	.16	-.20	.05	.04	.09	.13	.12	-.06
ΔR^2	.00	.02	.04	.00	.00	.01	.01	.01	.00
Final R	.23	.24	.26	.66	.24	.39	.37	.56	.52
Final R^2	.05	.06	.07	.43	.06	.15	.14	.31	.27
F ratio	.83	.92	1.05	11.25***	.90	2.70*	2.40*	6.70***	5.59***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 81. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Voice and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	.00	-.09	-.03	.02	-.14	-.03	-.05	.02
Desire for control	.04	-.10	-.09	-.12	-.23†	-.11	-.23*	.01	-.33**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Voice	.25*	.29*	.07	.18*	.22†	.27*	.15	.16	.18†
Early P-O fit	.09	.19	.17	.68***	.22†	.37**	.36**	.56***	.52***
ΔR^2	.07†	.11*	.03	.44***	.10*	.17**	.15**	.28***	.26***
Step 3:									
Voice x early P-O fit	.04	.12	.10	.09	.20†	-.04	.21†	-.06	.04
ΔR^2	.00	.01	.01	.01	.04†	.00	.04†	.00	.00
Final R	.30	.36	.22	.68	.38	.42	.44	.57	.54
Final R^2	.09	.13	.05	.47	.14	.18	.19	.32	.29
F ratio	1.44	2.21†	.76	13.11***	2.50*	3.22*	3.61**	7.18***	6.15***

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 82. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Taking Charge and Early P-O Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.05	-.06	-.11	-.06	-.01	-.18	-.07	-.06	-.01
Desire for control	.02	-.14	-.09	-.10	-.15	-.15	-.21†	-.00	-.34**
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Taking charge	.33**	.48***	.16	.17†	.15	.33**	.23*	.14	.22*
Early P-O fit	.14	.23*	.18	.68***	.17	.41**	.36**	.59***	.54***
ΔR^2	.10*	.23***	.05	.43***	.07†	.19***	.17**	.27***	.27***
Step 3:									
Taking charge x early P-O fit	-.09	-.05	.01	.04	.26*	-.14	.11	-.13	-.05
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.00	.00	.06*	.02	.01	.02	.00
Final R	.36	.48	.23	.68	.38	.47	.44	.57	.55
Final R^2	.13	.23	.05	.46	.14	.22	.19	.33	.30
F ratio	2.18†	4.51**	.85	12.53***	2.45*	4.14**	3.53**	7.26***	6.49***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 83. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Positive Framing and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a	β^a
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	-.01	-.11	.08	.00	-.09	-.02	.04	.12
Desire for control	.13	.02	-.05	.06	-.11	.01	-.11	.11	-.20†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	. 01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Positive framing	.16	.22†	.24*	.34**	.02	-.03	.20†	.37**	.30**
Early P-J fit	.18	.14	.11	.25*	.19†	.53***	.46***	.33**	.42***
ΔR^2	.06	.07†	.08*	.18***	.04	.28***	.26***	.26***	.27***
Step 3:									
Positive framing x early P-J fit	-.06	.02	.10	-.06	.12	.10	-.02	-.01	-.09
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.01	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01
Final R	.29	.28	.30	.45	.24	.55	.52	.54	.56
Final R^2	.08	.08	.09	.21	.06	.30	.27	.29	.31
F ratio	1.31	1.22	1.50	3.82**	.93	6.26***	5.38***	6.12***	6.61***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 84. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Seeking and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.01	-.03	-.10	.07	.02	-.08	-.02	.05	.10
Desire for control	.13	-.04	-.08	.04	-.11	.01	-.14	.10	-.23*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Feedback seeking	.02	.33**	.27*	.18	.08	.02	.23*	.22*	.21†
Early P-J fit	.19†	.07	.06	.23*	.17	.52***	.41***	.31**	.39***
ΔR^2	.04	.11*	.08*	.10*	.04	.28***	.27***	.17**	.23***
Step 3:									
Feedback seeking x early P-J fit	-.09	.17	.00	.08	.05	.14	.16†	-.16	.04
ΔR^2	.01	.03	.00	.01	.00	.02	.03†	.03	.00
Final R	.26	.38	.29	.36	.23	.56	.55	.48	.51
Final R^2	.07	.14	.08	.13	.05	.31	.30	.23	.26
F ratio	1.06	2.46*	1.32	2.19†	0.83	6.58***	6.25***	4.51**	5.30***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 85. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Information Seeking and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.01	-.01	-.11	.07	-.01	-.08	-.03	.05	.08
Desire for control	.08	-.03	-.10	.00	-.15	.02	-.15	.14	-.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Information seeking	.19	.22†	.24†	.23†	.17	.01	.16	.03	.20†
Early P-J fit	.20†	.12	.07	.24*	.16	.53***	.43***	.33**	.39***
ΔR^2	.06†	.06†	.07†	.12**	.07†	.28***	.25***	.13**	.23***
Step 3:									
Information seeking x early P-J fit	-.16	.02	.15	.04	.11	.03	.15	.08	.16
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.02	.00	.01	.00	.02	.01	.03
Final R	.33	.26	.30	.38	.29	.54	.52	.41	.54
Final R^2	.11	.07	.09	.14	.08	.29	.27	.17	.29
F ratio	1.77	1.06	1.49	2.48*	1.32	6.05***	5.857***	3.00*	5.95***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 86. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on General Socializing and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.01	.01	-.08	.09	.01	-.07	.00	.06	.12
Desire for control	.13	.05	.01	.09	-.07	.01	-.08	.16	-.18†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
General socializing	-.01	.02	.29*	-.01	.21†	-.09	-.00	.00	-.09
Early P-J fit	.24*	.14	.10	.25*	.15	.53***	.44***	.31**	.42***
ΔR^2	.04	.02	.09*	.07†	.09*	.29***	.22***	.13**	.20***
Step 3:									
General socializing x early P-J fit	-.18	.02	-.08	.09	.07	.05	.11	.14	.13
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.01	.01	.00	.00	.01	.02	.02
Final R	.30	.16	.31	.32	.31	.55	.49	.42	.49
Final R^2	.09	.03	.10	.10	.10	.30	.24	.18	.24
F ratio	1.45	0.41	1.58	1.69	1.61	6.24***	4.65**	3.22*	4.76**

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 87. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Build – Boss and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.03	-.05	-.14	.05	.02	-.10	-.05	.03	.09
Desire for control	.11	-.04	-.11	.02	-.11	-.02	-.17†	.09	-.23*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Build – boss	.15	.38**	.50***	.27*	.12	.17	.39***	.32**	.28*
Early P-J fit	.15	.06	-.01	.21†	.16	.49***	.37***	.26*	.36**
ΔR^2	.06	.14**	.23***	.14**	.05	.31***	.35***	.21***	.26***
Step 3:									
Build – boss x early P-J fit	-.06	.05	-.04	.02	-.07	.00	-.02	-.07	-.04
ΔR^2	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00
Final R	.29	.38	.49	.40	.25	.56	.60	.51	.54
Final R^2	.08	.15	.24	.16	.06	.31	.36	.26	.29
F ratio	1.32	2.54*	4.57**	2.77*	.99	6.75***	8.16***	5.10***	6.16***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 88. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Networking and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.02	.02	-.07	.09	.03	-.06	.01	.07	.11
Desire for control	.12	.06	-.01	.09	-.08	.05	-.07	.16	-.20†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Networking	.09	-.04	.06	.02	.00	-.17†	-.01	.04	.16
Early P-J fit	.19	.13	.08	.25*	.17	.54***	.44***	.33**	.39***
ΔR^2	.04	.02	.02	.08†	.04	.31***	.22***	.13**	.22***
Step 3:									
Networking x early P-J fit	-.06	.15	.16	.13	.15	.16	.20†	.09	.07
ΔR^2	.00	.02	.03	.02	.02	.02	.04†	.01	.01
Final R	.26	.22	.22	.34	.26	.58	.52	.41	.51
Final R^2	.07	.05	.05	.11	.07	.34	.27	.17	.26
F ratio	1.09	0.75	0.76	1.90	1.06	7.57***	5.36***	3.06*	5.10***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 89. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Mentor Initiating and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.00	-.01	-.13	.02	.00	-.08	-.06	.05	.06
Desire for control	.12	.03	-.07	.03	-.11	.02	-.13	.13	-.25*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Mentor initiating	.10	.07	.25*	.22†	.08	.00	.19†	.10	.28*
Early P-J fit	.21†	.14	.10	.24*	.18	.53***	.44***	.34**	.42***
ΔR^2	.04	.03	.07†	.12**	.05	.28***	.26***	.13**	.26***
Step 3:									
Mentor initiating x early P-J fit	-.15	.04	.05	.13	.05	.05	.16	.01	.02
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	.03	.00	.00
Final R	.29	.18	.28	.40	.23	.54	.54	.41	.54
Final R^2	.09	.03	.08	.16	.05	.29	.29	.17	.29
F ratio	1.40	0.49	1.23	2.81*	0.85	6.09***	6.06***	3.03*	6.15***

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 90. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Self-Management and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.08	-.08	-.08	.10	.03	-.09	-.00	.09	.10
Desire for control	.11	.01	-.03	.10	-.08	.03	-.07	.18	-.17†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Self-management	.32**	.42***	-.02	.12	.08	.18†	.26*	.05	.25*
Early P-J fit	.14	.06	.19	.14	.12	.39**	.28*	.24†	.27*
ΔR^2	.13**	.18**	.02	.09*	.04	.31***	.28***	.13**	.24***
Step 3:									
Self-management x early P-J fit	.11	.08	.13	-.22†	-.13	-.19†	-.24*	-.22†	-.21†
ΔR^2	.01	.00	.01	.04†	.01	.03†	.05*	.04†	.03†
Final R	.40	.43	.18	.38	.25	.58	.57	.45	.55
Final R^2	.16	.19	.03	.14	.06	.34	.33	.20	.31
F ratio	2.80*	3.44**	0.50	2.50*	1.01	7.77***	7.25***	3.72**	6.65***

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 91. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Feedback Monitoring and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.00	.01	-.09	.09	.01	-.08	-.00	.06	.11
Desire for control	.13	.04	-.00	.08	-.08	.02	-.09	.16	-.17†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Feedback monitoring	.10	.14	.19†	.25*	.18	-.02	.22*	.14	.20†
Early P-J fit	.27*	.22†	.08	.30*	.18	.55***	.49***	.34**	.44***
ΔR^2	.04	.04	.07†	.14**	.08*	.28***	.28***	.15**	.24***
Step 3:									
Feedback monitoring x early P-J fit	-.17	-.12	.15	-.02	.09	-.05	.02	.06	.04
ΔR^2	.03	.01	.02	.00	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00
Final R	.30	.23	.30	.40	.30	.54	.53	.43	.52
Final R^2	.09	.05	.09	.16	.09	.29	.28	.19	.27
F ratio	1.44	0.83	1.46	2.77*	1.52	6.20***	5.83***	3.49**	5.53***

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 92. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Job – Change Negotiating and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	.01	.01	-.07	.09	.02	-.08	-.01	.07	.12
Desire for control	.18	.06	-.01	.09	-.10	.08	-.07	.17	-.15
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.01	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Job – change negot.	-.15	-.08	.00	-.03	.04	-.24*	-.08	-.06	-.11
Early P-J fit	.21†	.13	.12	.26*	.18	.51***	.42***	.35**	.42***
ΔR^2	.06†	.03	.02	.07†	.04	.33***	.23***	.13**	.20***
Step 3:									
Job – change negot. x early P-J fit	-.07	.12	.03	.08	.08	.13	.25*	.01	.10
ΔR^2	.01	.01	.00	.01	.01	.02	.06*	.00	.01
Final R	.30	.20	.14	.32	.23	.59	.54	.41	.49
Final R^2	.09	.04	.02	.10	.05	.35	.29	.17	.24
F ratio	1.43	0.64	0.31	1.69	0.82	7.91***	5.97***	2.92*	4.75**

Note. $N = 80$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 93. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Voice and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.00	.04	-.05	.11	.05	-.07	.03	.07	.14
Desire for control	.09	-.06	-.04	.04	-.15	-.03	-.13	.14	-.22*
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Voice	.24*	.25*	.05	.10	.21†	.16	.05	.07	.05
Early P-J fit	.13	.16	.13	.28*	.17	.51***	.51***	.34**	.47***
ΔR^2	.08*	.09*	.02	.09*	.08*	.30***	.23***	.13**	.20***
Step 3:									
Voice x early P-J fit	-.15	.20†	.11	.10	.02	.00	.23*	-.03	.19†
ΔR^2	.02	.04†	.01	.01	.00	.00	.05*	.00	.03†
Final R	.35	.36	.18	.34	.29	.56	.53	.41	.51
Final R^2	.12	.13	.03	.12	.08	.31	.28	.17	.26
F ratio	2.11†	2.28†	0.52	1.97†	1.37	6.76***	5.94***	2.99*	5.34***

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

Table 94. Moderated Regressions of Adjustment Outcomes on Taking Charge and Early P-J Fit

	Task mastery	Role clarity	Social integration	P-O fit	PG fit	P-J fit	Job satisfaction	Org. commit-ment	Intent to remain
	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]	β[a]
Step 1:									
Proactive personality	-.02	-.00	-.07	.09	.02	-.08	.01	.07	.12
Desire for control	.04	-.08	-.04	.07	-.14	-.03	-.10	.15	-.19†
ΔR^2	.02	.00	.01	.02	.01	.01	.00	.04	.03
Step 2:									
Taking charge	.37**	.41**	.10	.04	.17	.18	.04	.02	.05
Early P-J fit	.17	.10	.10	.26*	.19	.50***	.44***	.35**	.42***
ΔR^2	.11*	.19***	.03	.08*	.06	.32***	.25***	.13**	.20***
Step 3:									
Taking charge x early P-J fit	-.18	.05	.06	.12	-.08	.07	.25*	.00	.13
ΔR^2	.03	.00	.00	.01	.01	.00	.05*	.00	.01
Final R	.40	.45	.19	.34	.26	.58	.55	.40	.50
Final R^2	.16	.20	.04	.11	.07	.33	.30	.16	.25
F ratio	2.86*	3.73**	0.56	1.93	1.08	7.41***	6.41***	2.91*	4.95**

Note. $N = 81$. † $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

[a] Final standardized regression weights with all variables in the equation.

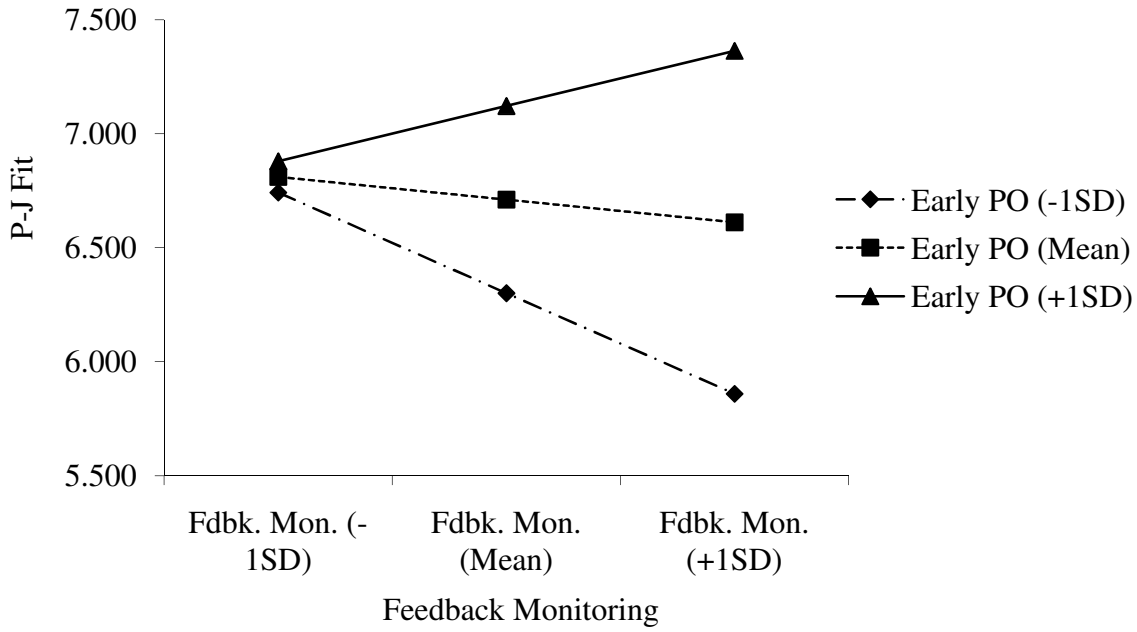

Figure 9. The Moderating Effect of Early P-O Fit on Feedback Monitoring and P-J Fit

CHAPTER 9: DISCUSSION

One purpose of this research has been to broaden the conceptualization of proactive socialization tactics (PSTs). Ashford and Black's (1996) conceptualization is the broadest one in the literature, consisting of seven behaviors: networking, general socializing, building relationships with the boss, negotiating job changes, positive framing, feedback seeking, and information seeking. Other studies and conceptual pieces have suggested additional forms of PSTs. This research incorporates Ashford and Black's behaviors plus five other behaviors (i.e., mentoring initiation, self-management, feedback monitoring, taking charge, and voice) into a single model. This has been the first study, to my knowledge, to test such a broad conceptualization of behaviors. This study also has attempted to contribute to our understanding of how proactive behavior operates by grouping them into those that are directed toward changing oneself and those directed toward changing one's environment. This section will discuss the results of this study, starting with results related to the proposed antecedent of age.

Age

Age did not play a significant role in predicting PSTs or socialization outcomes. Contrary to hypotheses, age was unrelated to positive framing, relationship-building behaviors, and socialization outcomes. However, age was correlated with one of the environment-directed PSTs, voice ($r = .25$, $p < .05$), which was not hypothesized. Age did relate to several other variables, including proactive personality and desire for control, which were individual differences used as control variables in this study. This may lead one to consider that age may relate to PSTs through mediating mechanisms. An exploratory analysis shows that neither proactive personality (which was uncorrelated

with voice, r = -.08, n.s.) nor desire for control (Z = 1.04, n.s.) acted as a mediating mechanism between age and voice. However, seeing that both time employed and transition experience correlated with positive framing and with age, I also explored these work experience variables as potential mediators between age and positive framing. The results of these tests were not significant (time employed: Z = 1.71, n.s.; number of transitions: Z = 1.84, n.s.).

It may be that the expectations for how to behave in the work environment, especially as a newcomer, are stronger than the age-related tendencies concerning social behavior that prompted these hypotheses. Regarding age and social behavior in the workplace, it may be interesting to explore whether or not effects exist outside of the early employment period. Age was a positive predictor of adjustment in general, but not a strong predictor. So indeed, in some cases, older newcomers adjust better to their new work situations than younger newcomers.

Work Experience

There were three aspects of work experience considered in this research: amount of time in the workforce overall, similarity of prior work experience to the current job, amount of experience with transitions. The hypotheses focused on the latter two aspects of work experience. The results show that, in general, similarity of work experience to the focal job did not predict positive framing or PSTs. On the other hand, transition experience did predict positive framing, as hypothesized. Transition experience also was correlated with several PSTs. What may explain why transition experience played a stronger role than similarity of work experience is that, regarding newcomers in the workplace, the aspect of being new to the environment may be more salient than the

aspect of being new to the work responsibilities. Therefore, newcomers may be more inclined to draw on their experience in having to adjust to a new environment than on experience regarding specific work duties.

Work experience was unrelated to adjustment outcomes. The reason this hypothesized relationship was unsupported may be that there are other variables, such as characteristics of the job or work environment, that influence whether or not work experience is an important consideration in regard to adjustment outcomes. Even though work experience did not significantly predict adjustment outcomes, the results of this study give some indication that an indirect effect may exist. I tested positive framing as a mediator between transition experience and the five adjustment outcomes to which positive framing was related: role clarity, social integration, P-O fit, organizational commitment, intent to remain. Although positive framing was not significant as a mediator, the *p*-value for its mediating effect was less than .10 for all five relationships.

Role Stressors

As predicted, individuals with higher levels of role overload were less likely to engage in positive framing. However, role overload did not relate to any other PSTs or the adjustment outcomes. As mentioned above, this may signal some sort of separation for newcomers regarding job responsibilities and concerns regarding adjustment to the environment.

Individuals with higher levels of role ambiguity were less likely to engage in positive framing, as hypothesized. However, it also was hypothesized that newcomers with higher levels of role ambiguity would engage in more feedback and information seeking than those with lower levels of role ambiguity. This hypothesis was unsupported

for feedback seeking and the results were opposite than expected for information seeking. Newcomers in roles with more ambiguity engaged in less information seeking than those with less ambiguity. Research generally theorizes and shows the opposite: that ambiguity and uncertainty are positive antecedents of information seeking (e.g., Ashford, 1986; Morrison, 2002a). Unlike feedback seeking, information seeking covers looking for information on topics that are not necessarily directly related to one's job. Newcomers that were struggling to understand their roles may not have had the time or cognitive resources to engage in this behavior. However, if this was the case, I would have expected to see role overload have negative relationships with sensemaking behavior. Another theory is that another factor is playing a role in the relationship between role ambiguity and sensemaking. For example, there is evidence that individuals are more likely to seek information and feedback in a supportive environment (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Williams, Miller, Steelman, & Levy, 1999). To further explore this theory I performed regressions analyzing the moderating role of perceived organizational support (POS) on the relationships between role ambiguity and both feedback and information seeking, after controlling for personality. Both moderator terms were nonsignificant (POS x feedback seeking: β = -.03, n.s., POS x information seeking: β = -.07, n.s.). However, newcomers' perceptions of other aspects of the work context still may play a moderating role in this relationship.

Contrary to predictions, role conflict was unrelated to positive framing, the environment-directed PSTs, and most of the adjustment outcomes. However, the beta-weights for role conflict in all four of these analyses were in the predicted directions.

Taken together this suggests that role conflict may indeed have some role in influencing newcomers' propensity to engage in PSTs.

More research is needed to better understand the relationships between role stressors, satisfaction, and environment-directed PSTs, as the findings from recent research appear to be contradictory. Traditionally, voice has been considered to be a response to dissatisfaction in the workplace (Hirschman, 1970). More recent research suggests the contrary, that voice actually may occur as a result of satisfaction. LePine and Van Dyne (1998) theorized that individuals who were more satisfied with their groups would be more motivated to contribute to the group in terms of offering new ideas. Their research supported this assertion. On the other hand, a recent experience sampling study of taking charge as a proactive behavior showed that job stressors, operationalized as time pressure and situational constraints, actually positively predicted proactive behavior occurring in the same day or the day following the stressors (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). Even though role stressors tend to negatively relate to job satisfaction, their effects on behaviors oriented toward changing the environment may be fundamentally different. Future research on this issue may help us better understand the relationships between role stressors, satisfaction, and environment-directed PSTs.

As predicted, newcomers with high levels of role stressors generally fared more poorly on adjustment outcomes than their counterparts perceiving lower levels of role stressors, with role ambiguity being the strongest predictor. Individuals that perceived more difficulties in their roles at Time 2 had lower levels of adjustment at Time 3. This is consistent with prior research that shows role stressors to generally be negatively related

to work outcomes (Cooper et al., 2001; Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Kushnir & Melamed, 1991).

Also as expected, the role stressors negatively predicted adjustment outcomes. Positive framing was tested as a mediator between both role overload and role ambiguity and the outcomes of role clarity, social integration, P-O fit, but the results were not significant. It appears that the effects of role stressors on the outcomes are direct rather than mediated by PSTs.

Job Autonomy

It was predicted that job autonomy would be positively related to the environment-directed PSTs, but the results showed that job autonomy actually was negatively related to job change negotiating and unrelated to voice and taking charge. That newcomers who had more freedom in how to perform their jobs actually did less to change their jobs as compared to those with less freedom was contrary to previous theorizing about job crafting (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). However, this may mean that newcomers with higher levels of autonomy actually had such freedom that they did not have to negotiate with coworkers or supervisors in order to tailor the way their jobs were performed. As discussed in Chapter 7, the individuals in this sample appeared to have jobs with high levels of autonomy. These jobs also may have tended to be low in task interdependence, such that newcomers could perform them as they desired with little input from supervisors or coworkers. It also may be that since job autonomy is generally considered to be a desirable job characteristic, that those in jobs with higher levels of autonomy also had other desirable job characteristics and found less need to attempt to make changes to how the job was performed. Regarding adjustment outcomes, the

research results show job autonomy to positively predict some adjustment outcomes, consistent with expectations.

Workgroup and Organizational Context

POS generally performed as expected in this study. As hypothesized, newcomers that perceived higher levels of organizational support were more likely to engage in positive framing of their situations as compared to those perceiving lower levels of support. Newcomers with high POS also fared better in regard to socialization outcomes as compared to those perceiving lower levels of support. Individuals perceiving that their organization provides them with high levels of support ultimately were better adjusted than those perceiving less support from their organizations. This is consistent with prior research showing positive outcomes for higher levels of POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Tests for positive framing as a mediator between POS and outcomes were not significant, so positive framing does not explain the relationship between perceptions of support and adjustment outcomes.

Newcomers' perceptions of psychological empowerment did relate to the degree to which they were proactive during the socialization process. Although empowerment was not a strong predictor, it predicted both self-directed and environment-directed tactics. This provides support for the theory that the increased responsibility and capability that empowered individuals feel toward their work may translate to taking a more proactive attitude toward adjustment. Empowerment also was a consistent, positive predictor of the adjustment outcomes, supporting the notion that highly empowered newcomers are more likely to feel competent and satisfied with their jobs and committed to the organization.

The tests for indirect effects provided some evidence that the relationships between empowerment and adjustment outcomes may have had a mediation component. Although the results were not significant after taking into account the Bonferroni adjustment, the general trend of the mediation analysis shows that building relationships with one's boss, engaging in self-management, and taking charge may have a mediating effect on the relationships between empowerment and adjustment outcomes. This suggests that empowerment not only has a direct effect on outcomes, but that empowerment also may help newcomers adjust by prompting them to participate in proactive behaviors that facilitate their adjustment.

Consistent with prior research (e.g., Gruman et al., 2006; Mignerey et al., 1995), institutionalized socialization was a predictor of self-directed PSTs, though a fairly weak one, and did not predict environment-directed PSTs. This may provide some evidence for the assertion that institutionalized socialization may influence newcomers to change themselves in order to conform to organizational expectations. Institutional tactics may provide some impetus to fit in by changing oneself, but provide less of a clear impetus regarding whether or not to make attempts to change the organization or workgroup. The actual content of institutional methods of socialization, which was not measured in this research, may play a role in determining the extent to which newcomers engage in environment-directed behaviors. Surprisingly, none of the meditational effects in connection with institutional tactics was significant. It appears that although institutional tactics did predict some PSTs, these PSTs did not mediate the effects of institutional tactics on outcomes.

PSTs and Outcomes

One of the questions this research study was designed to answer was whether or not both self-directed and environment-directed PSTs would predict adjustment outcomes. Previous research has shown self-directed PSTs to be related to outcomes, such as social integration, role clarity, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and performance (Ashford & Black, 1996; Ashforth et al., 2007; Gruman et al., 2006; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000). However, these results generally have not held true for job – change negotiating. Regarding the other environment – directed behaviors, voice and taking charge, this is the first time to my knowledge that they have been tested during early employment. Also, these behaviors tend to be researched as dependent variables rather than antecedent variables (e.g., Burris, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008; Detert & Burris, 2007; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998). Outside of the early employment context, a recent meta-analysis, however, did show organization-directed organizational citizenship behaviors to be positively related to job performance ratings and rewards, and negatively related to turnover intentions, turnover, and absenteeism (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Voice and taking charge are both considered to be part of this category of organizational citizenship behaviors, but this category also includes behaviors such as organizational loyalty and promoting the company's image. In an experiment using a sample of undergraduate business students, voice was found to positively predict performance appraisal ratings as well (Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008).

The results in this study show that both self-directed and environment-directed PSTs do predict adjustment outcomes, but that self-directed tactics are much stronger predictors of adjustment outcomes. The relationships between job – change negotiating

and outcomes did not conform to expectations, though. Even though it was positively correlated with voice, taking charge, and other PSTs, job-change negotiating did not significantly predict any of the adjustment outcomes, but most of the beta-weights were negative in direction. Also noteworthy is that job – change negotiating was positively related to role conflict and, as mentioned earlier, negatively related to job autonomy. Newcomers performing job – change negotiating may have done so primarily as a response to conflicting expectations in jobs that allowed little freedom in how they were carried out. The dissatisfaction that likely resulted from this situation may have carried over to lower adjustment outcomes. Job-change negotiating was unrelated to early P-O fit, suggesting that perhaps it was not the actual job responsibilities that those engaging in this tactic had problems with, but rather how their roles were structured in regard to supervision and working with others. In order to better understand the relationships between job-change negotiating and adjustment outcomes, we may need more research to understand what exactly newcomers try to change about their jobs. How newcomers attempt to make these changes may be relevant as well, in terms of understanding the relationship between this tactic and outcomes.

Moderating Effects of Physical Separation and Early Fit Perceptions

There were two sets of moderators considered in this study: physical separation from the workgroup and early fit perceptions. It was predicted that physical separation from the workgroup would weaken the relationship between contextual antecedents and PSTs, and would strengthen the relationships between PSTs and newcomer adjustment. Further, it was predicted that early fit perceptions would moderate both the relationships between antecedents and PSTs as well as the relationships between PSTs and outcomes

such that they would be stronger when fit was low and weaker when fit was high. Although these hypotheses were not supported, there was one interesting trend in regard to moderation. The results indicated that perceptions of early P-J fit influenced several of the relationships between empowerment and adjustment outcomes as well as POS and adjustment outcomes. Newcomers' early fit perceptions may influence the degree to which contextual antecedents relate to adjustment outcomes, or even whether or not those relationships are positive or negative. If future research confirms the trends shown in this study regarding the effects of early P-J fit, then antecedents such as empowerment and POS actually may have negative effects on PSTs for some individuals.

Contributions

A key gap that has existed in the proactive socialization literature was the lack of identification of antecedents of PSTs that are not disposition-based. This research has focused on furthering our understanding of nondispositional individual differences as antecedents of PSTs by exploring the roles of age and work history. This research also has explored the roles of contextual and job-related antecedents (i.e., role stressors, job autonomy, empowerment, support, institutionalized socialization) which have received little attention in regard to proactive socialization.

This study contributes to the growing proactive socialization literature by providing an expanded framework on which to build future research and theory. By testing a broad conceptualization containing two types of PSTs, we have learned that self-directed PSTs are the most predictive of adjustment outcomes, but that environment-directed PSTs relate to desirable outcomes as well.

Another contribution has been the use of a sample having a wide range of ages and work experience. Socialization research tends to be conducted using student samples. Graduating undergraduate students tend to be easily accessible to academic researchers and provide large sample sizes. Also, researchers may expect to observe stronger effect sizes with undergraduates who tend to not only be organizational newcomers, but occupational newcomers as well. However, recent college graduates compose only a portion of organizational newcomers. It is important to understand the differences between those with very little, if any, work experience and those who have established their careers. In this study, one of the findings was an effect for transition experience, something that is rarely measured in socialization research.

Also, the role of age was examined in this research. Although age and work experience tend to be highly correlated, individuals undergo age-related changes that are independent of work experience. These changes may be cognitive, emotional, or dispositional in nature. There were few age effects in this study, but the exploration itself contributes to our understanding of the role that age may or may not have in the socialization process.

Practical Contributions

One of the most interesting practical contributions from this research is the potential effect of newcomers' early fit perceptions on the relationship between their perceptions of the organizational context and performance of PSTs. Although the moderating role of early fit perceptions was not explicit, there was a definite trend regarding the effect of this construct. If future research bears out early P-J fit perceptions as a moderator in the manner indicated here, then managers may want to consider the

importance of high early fit perceptions in regard to proactivity and its related outcomes. In certain cases, employers may consider using different recruiting, selection, or training techniques in order to improve early fit perceptions in a particular cohort of new employees.

Understanding more about antecedents of PSTs can have great practical value. For example, empowerment perceptions were found to have some predictive value. However, empowerment is influenced by supervisors and, therefore, can vary at the workgroup level in addition to varying at the individual level. This finding can be used to help assign newcomers to particular supervisors or workgroups if they may need additional help adjusting to the environment. Managers also may need to take a more active role in monitoring the socialization progress of these individuals to ensure they are progressing as desired. Also, training programs may help promote the performance of PSTs in individuals less likely to engage in them by boosting their self efficacy in regard to activities such as networking, relationship building, and information seeking.

The roles of age and work experience in the socialization process are potentially more important to understand now than ever before. The American workforce is aging as workers are choosing to retire at older ages and as many begin second "mini-careers" upon formal retirement from their primary careers. At the same time, older workers who generally have more experience and more life stability than younger workers can prove quite valuable to organizations. Therefore, it is important that organizations understand what to expect when socializing these older workers into their organizations. Work experience, in addition to physiological and emotional age effects, has already been shown to have some effects on socialization. Fully understanding the role that this

variable has is even more important now that people hold more jobs over the course of their careers than they did a few decades ago. Most newcomers enter the organization not as blank slates, but with existing assumptions and mental models about how to operate in the workplace. Organizations need to understand the effects of this history in order to properly design their socialization procedures.

Future Research

One avenue of future research is to further understand the role of insiders (i.e., veteran coworkers and supervisors) in proactive socialization. Despite the fact that Moreland and Levine (2001) have proposed that newcomer socialization primarily takes place within work groups, there has been little research regarding the role that actions of organizational veterans play in the socialization process. A notable exception includes research led by Chen (Chen, 2005; Chen & Klimoski, 2003) showing that expectations of workgroup members predicted newcomers' performance. Slaughter and Zickar (2006) found that the behavior of new graduate students was influenced by attitudes and behaviors and faculty and advanced graduate students in the newcomers' departments. Existing theory tells us it is relevant to consider the role of insiders in the socialization process. Outcomes of the socialization process include newcomers' attitudes about their jobs and organizations. According to social information processing theory (e.g., Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Zalesny & Ford, 1990) organizational veterans may play a key role in influencing these attitudes. Also, Reichers (1987) has proposed that insider proactivity in addition to newcomer proactivity will increase socialization rates beyond just newcomer proactivity alone.

There are two key ways insiders may be relevant in understanding antecedents and outcomes of PSTs. One way is in terms of insiders acting as role models for newcomers. Newcomers may be more likely to engage in PSTs if they see their coworkers and managers behaving in ways that are proactive. In this case, newcomers' proactive behaviors also may be more effective as they may learn effective and acceptable tactics from their role models.

The second aspect of the role of insiders to consider is the response of insiders to and cooperation (or lack of) with newcomers' proactivity attempts. As discussed in Chapter 5, organizational insiders may have negative reactions to environment-directed proactive behaviors in that it may be perceived that the newcomers have overly lofty views of their own abilities or that newcomers have little respect for the existing culture of the organization. As a result to these negative reactions, newcomers may fail to cooperate with the suggested role, workgroup, or organizational changes. This may negatively affect newcomers' adjustment in terms of social integration and perceptions of value similarity. On the other hand, insiders may view the suggestions of newcomers who are seen as experts in the field as necessary and beneficial to the workgroup, and as being beneficial to themselves at some point. In this case, veterans may cooperate and do whatever they can to both facilitate the changes and help the newcomer adjust. In the same vein, veterans may react positively to newcomers who seek feedback if it is perceived the feedback is being sought for its instrumental value. However, veterans who perceive newcomers' feedback efforts to be for the purposes of impression management may not provide valuable feedback or may even seek to sabotage the newcomer by

providing feedback that may cause the newcomer to behave in ways that are considered as undesirable within the organization.

Also in regard to insiders' responses to newcomers, insiders may be more likely to be proactive in helping newcomers adjust once the newcomer exhibits proactivity, for instance, by seeking feedback or actively networking. On the other hand, a veteran may be more likely to be proactive in the case of a newcomer that is perceived to be very similar to him/herself as opposed to a newcomer that seems very different.

Another avenue for future research is to consider different method for studying proactive behavior. A recent experience sampling study found that role stressors predicted proactive behavior occurring later in the same day and on the following day among clerical workers (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2009). Experience sampling may help us to understand more immediate causes of proactive behavior in the workplace that may not show up in traditional survey research.

Finally, future research should explore the role of time, especially in regard to environment-directed PSTs. As suggested above, the potential for negative responses of insiders to newcomers' environment-directed proactive behaviors may result in them being ineffective at facilitating newcomer adjustment. Also, the suggestions of newcomers who do not understand the culture, traditions, history, and people within an organization or workgroup may not have the results the newcomer expects them to have, therefore not improving adjustment. However, environment-directed behaviors may result in enhanced fit and commitment for newcomers who have been with the company a particular length of time and, therefore, have better understanding of the environment.

APPENDIX: MEASURES

Newcomer Survey, T1

Proactive Personality (Bateman & Crant, 1993; Parker et al., 2006)
(1 = not true at all, 7 = very true)

1. No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.
2. I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.
3. I excel at identifying opportunities.
4. If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.

Desire for Control (Greenberger et al., 1981)
Indicate how much control you would like over the following aspects of your work: (1 = very little, 7 = very much)
To what extent would you like…

1. Control over unit's tasks.
2. Control over when unit performs.
3. Control over unit's performance standards.
4. Control over unit's training.
5. Control over setting of unit's policy.
6. Control in general over work factors.

Information about your Current Job

1. What was your hire date: _____
2. Are you a (check one)?
    a. New hire, first time working at Georgia Tech
    b. Rehire (if so, what were approximate dates of your previous employment at Georgia Tech?) _____
    c. Transfer from another part of the University System of Georgia, but first time working at Georgia Tech
    d. Other (please explain) _____
3. Regarding your employment status at Tech, are you a…? (check one)
    a. Full-time employee
    b. Part-time employee
4. Have you been hired as a temporary or permanent employee?
5. How many days constitute a typical work week for you?
6. In a typical work week, approximately how many days do you expect to work from away from your main work location on campus? in other words, on how many days will you work from home or some other location? _____
7. Where is your physical work location?
    a. Main campus in Atlanta , Georgia
    b. Away from the main campus in Atlanta, Georgia
    c. Other (write-in location name and city) _____

Education and Demographics

1. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
   - Some high school
   - Completed high school or GED
   - Some college
   - Associates or technical school degree
   - Bachelor's degree
   - Some graduate school
   - Graduate degree
2. How old were you on your last birthday? _____ years old
3. What is your gender? _____ Male _____ Female
4. What is your race/ethnicity?
   - Caucasian or White (not Hispanic)
   - African-American or Black
   - Hispanic or Latino/a
   - Native American
   - Asian/Pacific Islander
   - Multi-racial _____
   - Other _____

Work History

Please answer the following questions about your overall work experience to the best of your recollection.

1. How many years have you been in regular full-time employment? _____ years and _____ months
2. Approximately how many different companies or organizations have you worked for on a full-time basis? _____ organizations
3. Approximately how many different jobs or positions have you held while working full-time? Consider both times when you started working with a new company and times when you changed jobs within an organization. _____ jobs/positions
4. Approximately how much time, if any, have you spent working at a college or university *prior to your present job*? _____ years and _____ months
5. Approximately how much time, if any, have you spent working within the University System of Georgia *prior to your present job*? _____ years and _____ months
6. Approximately how much time, if any, have you spent working at Georgia Tech *prior to your present job*? _____ years and _____ months
7. Have you ever been a *student* at Georgia Tech? _____ yes _____ no
   If so, what year was your last year as a student at Georgia Tech (e.g., 1992)?
   _____

Person – Organization Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002)

(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. I expect that my organization's values and culture will provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.
2. I expect that the things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values.
3. I expect that my personal values match my organization's values and culture.

Person – Job Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I expect that the match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills.
2. I expect that my abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job.
3. I expect that my personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me.

Newcomer Survey, T2

Role Novelty (Nicholson & West, 1988)
(almost identical, only minor differences, major differences, almost completely different)
1. How different are the *tasks involved* in your present job from your previous jobs?
2. How different are the *skills required* in your present job from your previous jobs?
3. How different are the *methods used to do the job* in your present job from your previous jobs?
4. How different are the *interactions required with others required* in your present job from your previous jobs?

Role Clarity/Ambiguity (Rizzo et al., 1970)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
2. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.
3. I know that I have divided my time properly.
4. I know what my responsibilities are.
5. I know exactly what is expected of me.
6. Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

Role Conflict (Rizzo et al., 1970)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I have to do things that should be done differently
2. I have to buck a rule or a policy in order to carry out an assignment
3. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people
4. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others
5. I work on unnecessary things
6. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently
7. I receive assignments without the manpower to complete them

8. I receive assignments without adequate resources and material to execute them.

Role Overload (Beehr et al., 1976)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I am given enough time to do what is expected of me on my job. (R)
2. It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.
3. The performance standard on my job is too high.

Job Autonomy (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Idaszak & Drasgow, 1987), using a Likert-type response scale (*1 = very inaccurate to 7 = very accurate*).
1. The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative and judgment in carrying out the work.
2. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence.
3. How much autonomy is there in this job? That is, to what extent does this job permit the employee to decide on their own how to go about doing things at work?

Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Lynch et al., 1999)
Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about Georgia Tech, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by checking one of the seven alternatives.
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
2. My organization really cares about my well-being.
3. My organization shows very little concern for me (R)
4. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
5. My organization cares about my opinions.
6. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me. (R)
7. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
8. My organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor.

Psychological Empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Meaning
1. The work I do is very important to me.
2. My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
3. The work I do is meaningful to me.

Competence
1. I am confident about my ability to do my job.
2. I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.

3. I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.

Self-determination
1. I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
2. I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
3. I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.

Impact
1. My impact on what happens in my department is large.
2. I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.
3. I have significant influence over what happens in my department.

Institutionalized Socialization Tactics (Jones, 1986)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Collective vs. individual
1. In the last six months, I have been extensively involved with other new recruits in common, job related training activities.
2. Other newcomers have been instrumental in helping me to understand my job requirements.
3. This organization puts all newcomers through the same set of learning experiences.
4. Most of my training has been carried out apart from other newcomers. (R)
5. There is a sense of "being in the same boat" amongst newcomers in this organization.

Formal vs. informal
1. I have been through a set of training experiences which are specifically designed to give newcomers a thorough knowledge of job related skills.
2. During my training for this job I was normally physically apart from regular organizational members.
3. I did not perform any of my normal job responsibilities until I was thoroughly familiar with departmental procedures and work methods.
4. Much of my job knowledge has been acquired informally on a trial and error basis. (R)
5. I have been very aware that I am seen as "learning the ropes" in this organization.

Investiture vs. divestiture
1. I have been made to feel that my skills and abilities are very important in this organization.
2. Almost all of my colleagues have been supportive of me personally.
3. I have had to change my attitudes and values to be accepted in this organization. (R)
4. My colleagues have gone out of their way to help me adjust to this organization.
5. I feel that experienced organizational members have held me at a distance until I confirm to their expectations. (R)

Sequential vs. random

1. There is a clear pattern in the way one role leads to another or one job assignment leads to another in this organization.
2. Each stage of the training process has, and will, expand and build upon the job knowledge gained during the preceding stages of the process.
3. The movement from role to role and function to function to build up experience and a track record is very apparent in this organization.
4. This organization does not put newcomers through an identifiable sequence of learning experiences. (R)
5. The steps in the career ladder are clearly specified in this organization.

Serial vs. disjunctive

1. Experienced organizational members see advising or training newcomers as one of their main job responsibilities in this organization.
2. I am gaining a clear understanding of my role in this organization from observing my senior colleagues.
3. I have received little guidance from experienced organizational members as to how I should perform my job. (R)
4. I have little or no access to people who have previously performed my role in this organization. (R)
5. I have been generally left alone to discover what my role should be in this organization. (R)

Fixed vs. variable

1. I can predict my future career path in this organization by observing other people's experiences.
2. I have a good knowledge of the time it will take me to go through the various stages of the training process in this organization.
3. The way in which my progress through this organization will follow a fixed timetable of events has been clearly communicated to me.
4. I have little idea when to expect a new job assignment or training exercise in this organization. (R)
5. Most of my knowledge of what may happen to me in the future comes informally, through the grapevine, rather than through regular organizational channels. (R)

Proactive Socialization Behaviors (Ashford & Black, 1996)
To what extent have you…
(1 = very little, 7 = very much)

Positive framing

1. Tried to see your situation as an opportunity rather than a threat?
2. Tried to look on the bright side of things?
3. Tried to see your situation as a challenge rather than a problem?

Feedback seeking

4. Sought feedback on your performance after assignments?

5. Solicited critiques from your boss?
6. Sought out feedback on your performance during assignments?
7. Asked for your boss's opinion of your work?

Information seeking
8. Tried to learn the (official) organization structure?
9. Tried to learn the important policies and procedures in the organization?
10. Tried to learn the politics of the organization?
11. Tried to learn the (unofficial) structure?

General socializing (Ashford & Black, 1996; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000)
12. Participated in social office events to meet people (i.e., parties, softball team, outings, clubs, lunches)?
13. Attended company social gatherings?
14. Tried to socialize and get to know my coworkers?

Building relationships with the boss
15. Tried to spend as much time as you could with your boss?
16. Tried to form a good relationship with your boss?
17. Worked hard to get to know your boss?

Networking
18. Started conversations with people from different segments of the company?
19. Tried to socialize with people who are not in your department?
20. Tried to get to know as many people as possible in other sections of the company on a personal basis?

Negotiating job changes
21. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about desirable job changes?
22. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about your task assignments?
23. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about the demands placed on you?
24. Negotiated with others (including your supervisor and/or coworkers) about their expectations of you?

Self-Management (Gerhardt et al., 2007)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I am successful in managing all things I have going on in life.
2. I set goals for myself.
3. I am successful at achieving the goals I set for myself.
4. I am a good time manager.

Self-Management (Manz, 1983)

1. I try to keep track of how well I'm doing while I work.
2. I often use reminders to help me remember things I need to do.
3. I like to work toward specific goals I set for myself.
4. When I have successfully completed a task, I often reward myself with something I like.
5. I tend to get down on myself when I have performed poorly. *(This item was dropped from the final scale.)*
6. I often rehearse my plan for dealing with a challenge before I actually face the challenge. *(This item was dropped from the final scale.)*

Observation and Feedback Monitoring adapted from (Morrison, 1993b)
(1 = very infrequently, 7 = very frequently)

To determine *how to perform specific aspects of your job*, how frequently, in general, have you done each of the following:

1. Pay attention to how others behave.
2. Observe what behaviors are rewarded and use this as a clue to what is desirable or expected.

To determine *what is expected of you in your job*, how frequently, in general, have you done each of the following:

1. Pay attention to how others behave.
2. Observe what behaviors are rewarded and use this as a clue to what is desirable or expected.

To determine *the appropriateness of your social behavior at work*, how frequently, in general, have you done each of the following:

1. Pay attention to how others behave.
2. Observe what behaviors are rewarded and use this as a clue to what is desirable or expected.

Initiation of Mentoring Relationships (Turban & Dougherty, 1994)
To what extent have you:
(1 = very little, 7 = to a great extent)

1. Sought to become acquainted with higher-level managers?
2. Made personal efforts to have your work become visible to higher-level managers?
3. Taken the initiative to seek counseling and advice from higher level managers?
4. Taken the initiative to find mentors in your organization?

Taking Charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. I often try to adopt improved procedures for doing my job.

2. I often try to change how my job is executed in order to be more effective.
3. I often try to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department.
4. I often try to institute new work methods that are more effective for the company.
5. I often try to change organizational rules or policies that are nonproductive or counterproductive.
6. I often make constructive suggestions for improving how things operate within the organization.
7. I often try to correct a faulty procedure or practice.
8. I often try to eliminate redundant or unnecessary procedures.
9. I often try to implement solutions to pressing organizational problems.
10. I often try to introduce new structures, technologies, or approaches to improve efficiency.

Voice (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group.
2. I speak up and encourage others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group.
3. I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in this group even if my opinion is different and others in the group disagree with me.
4. I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to this work group.
5. I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group.
6. I speak up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures.

Newcomer Survey, T3

Task Mastery (Chao et al., 1994; Morrison, 1993a)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I am confident about the adequacy of my job skills and abilities.
2. I feel competent conducting my job assignments.
3. It seems to take me longer than planned to complete my job assignments. (R)
4. I rarely make mistakes when conducting my job assignments.
5. I have learned how to successfully perform my job in an efficient manner.
6. I have mastered the required tasks of my job.
7. I have not fully developed the appropriate skills and abilities to successfully perform my job. (R)

Role Clarity/Ambiguity (Rizzo et al., 1970)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
1. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
2. Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.
3. I know that I have divided my time properly.
4. I know what my responsibilities are.

5. I know exactly what is expected of me.
6. Explanation is clear of what has to be done.

Social Integration (Morrison, 1993a; Price & Mueller, 1986)

1. I feel comfortable around my co-workers. *(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)*
2. My co-workers seem to accept me as one of them. *(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)*
3. What would you say about the atmosphere in your immediate work group in terms of friendliness? *(not friendly at all, very little, somewhat, quite, very friendly)*
4. To what extent do people in your immediate work group help you find ways to do a better job? *(never, seldom, sometimes, quite often, very often)*
5. To what extent do you discuss personal problems with individuals in your immediate work group? *(never, seldom, sometimes, quite often, very often)*

Person – Organization Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002)

(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. My organization's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.
2. The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my organization values.
3. My personal values match my organization's values and culture.

Person – Workgroup Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002)

(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. My workgroup's values and culture provide a good fit with the things that I value in life.
2. The things that I value in life are very similar to the things that my workgroup values.
3. My personal values match my workgroup's values and culture.

Person – Job Fit (Cable & DeRue, 2002)

(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. The match is very good between the demands of my job and my personal skills.
2. My abilities and training are a good fit with the requirements of my job.
3. My personal abilities and education provide a good match with the demands that my job places on me.

Job Satisfaction (Cammann et al., 1979)

(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. All in all I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don't like my job. (R)
3. In general, I like working here.

Affective Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997)

(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R)
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. (R)
5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)

Intent to Leave (Cammann et al., 1979)

1. How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year? *(1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely)*
2. I often think about quitting. *(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)*
3. I will probably look for a new job in the next year. *(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)*

Parent Company vs. Local Operation Commitment (Gregersen & Black, 1992)
(1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Parent company items

1. The reason I prefer Georgia Tech to others is because of its values, or what it stands for.
2. I really care about the fate of Georgia Tech.
3. I talk up Georgia Tech to my friends as a great place to work.
4. What Georgia Tech stands for is important to me.

Local operation items

1. What my local office/campus stands for is important to me.
2. I really care about the fate of my local office/campus.
3. I talk up my local office/campus to my friends as a great group to work with.
4. The reasons I prefer this office/campus to others is because of its values, or what it stands for.

(R) indicates that the item will be reverse scored.

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